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USSR Report

HUMAN RESOURCES

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LABOR

LABOR STATE COMMITTEE CHAIRMAN INTERVIEWED ON NEW PROCEDURES

Moscow SOTSIALISTICHESKAYA INDUSTRIYA in Russian 14 Aug 84 p 3

[Interview with L. Kostin, first deputy chairman of the USSR State Committee for Labor and Social Problems, by S. Volkov: "What Is New in the Labor Procedures"]

[Text] The USSR State Committee for Labor and Social Problems has confirmed a set of Standard Rules for internal labor procedures for workers and employees at enterprises, establishments and organizations. The rules have been agreed by the AUCCTU. They contain a number of important new provisions. Our correspondent S. Volkov asked L. Kostin, first deputy chairman of the USSR State Committee for Labor and Social Problems, to tell us about them.

[Question] Leonid Alekseyevich, the Standard Rules for internal labor procedures, which have now been superseded, had been in operation since 1972. Since then substantial positive changes have taken place in the organization of labor and production, and in management, and this resulted in the compilation of the new document. What general trends are reflected in it?

[Answer] To put it concisely, there are two, namely the further democratization of production management, along with a general strengthening of labor discipline. In the general section it states that socialist labor discipline is not merely strict observance of the rules for internal procedures but also a conscious, creative attitude toward one's own labor, guaranteeing high quality, and making productive use of work time. Thus, the two processes are in no way mutually contradictory but augment each other. And this is clear enough: only a diligent, skillful and conscientious worker who worries about the common cause can be a true master of production.

When working on the new recommendation for the Standard Rules we first and foremost proceeded from two main documents, namely the USSR Law "On the Labor Collectives and Enhancing Their Role in the Management of Enterprises, Establishments and Organizations," and the CPSU Central Committee, USSR Council of Ministers and AUCCTU decree "On Strengthening Work To Reinforce Socialist Labor Discipline." Consideration was also given to other recent legislation.

Much attention was paid to the role of the labor collectives, which was not done in the old Standard Rules. Let me start by saying that they have been given the right to confirm (when presented by the administration and the trade union committee) the rules for internal procedures applicable to working conditions at their own enterprises. Henceforth the labor collective also has the right to resolve questions connected with the application of these rules, naturally within the limits of their powers as stipulated in law. There is also an entry to the effect that one very important direction in work to instill and strengthen socialist labor discipline is effective use of the rights afforded the labor collectives.

[Question] How is the process of the further democratization of production relations taking place in our society reflected?

[Answer] Additions fully elucidating the mutual relations between administration and worker have been introduced in virtually all sections of the Standard Rules. In particular, a ban has been placed on demanding that workers show documents not provided for under the law when they seek work. The labor record and certificate [passport] are all that are required. The hiring procedure has been precisely specified. The following is an entry that is additional to the content of the old Standard Rules: a worker is considered hired for work when a labor contract is concluded. Regardless of whether the acceptance has been formulated in the proper way, that is, by an order that proclaims that a worker has been put on the strength.

The obligations of the administration have been extended. These include a requirement to create for the labor collective the necessary conditions for them to exercise their powers as provided for under the law, taking care to see that labor productivity and the efficiency of social production are enhanced in every possible way, and improving work quality. Additionally, the administration is obliged to implement measures to reduce the volume of manual labor, improve the organization and standards of production, and create conditions for labor productivity growth through introducing the latest achievements of science and technology and the scientific organization of labor.

One special point in the specification is development of the brigade forms of labor organization, which, as is known, are opening up great opportunities for worker participation in production management.

I would like to draw attention to one innovation that affects social aspects. Thus, among the main obligations of the administration a norm has been confirmed obliging it to take the necessary steps to prevent production accidents and occupational and other diseases, and to offer timely concessions and compensation associated with working conditions (shorter work days, additional holidays, therapeutic and preventive diets and so forth). In short, it is a question of a full set of labor safety measures.

New provisions have also been added that oblige the administration to undertake construction, repair and maintenance in good order of residential housing, hostels, children's preschool establishments, and also trade and personal

services enterprises; and to provide help in individual construction, organize registers of workers needing improvements in their living conditions, allocate apartments in accordance with existing legislation, and insure the broad publication of their decisions on these questions.

[Question] Could you talk about those factors that interest literally every person, as for example moral and material incentive, the procedure for dismissal from work and so forth?

[Answer] Here I should start with the enhanced role of the labor collectives. They have been given the right to apply measures of social and material incentive for success in labor, and to express their opinions on candidates put forward for state prizes and so forth. No other changes have been made in this section of the Standard Rules.

With regard to dismissal from work, substantial additions have been made here. Workers and employees have a right to terminate a labor contract concluded for an unspecified time by giving the administration 2 months notice in writing. If a worker leaves for valid reasons, this notice is halved. It should be emphasized that time taken to do work assigned to a worker or employee for violating labor discipline is not counted in the time from which notice is served.

[Question] We have already started to talk about strengthening discipline--a very acute question in our times! Could you tell us in more detail about the measures aimed at this?

[Answer] As we have already noted, in Soviet society the democratization of production management and the strengthening of labor discipline are interlinked and mutually complementary processes.

The Standard Rules charge both workers and employees and the administration with doing everything needed to observe and strengthen labor and production discipline, reduce losses of work time, make rational use of manpower and material resources, and form stable cadres.

The role of the labor collectives has therefore been sealed in the Standard Rules. They "show strict, comradely exactingness toward workers who carry out their duties unconscientiously, use social measures against those who violate discipline (reprimands, public censure), pass materials on for examination by the comrades' courts, and raise questions of the use of measures to influence people as established by law." In addition to this, the opinion of the labor collective is taken into consideration when penalties are imposed on a worker.

The administration has been given additional rights. It may transfer a worker or employee to lower-paid work or to a lower position for a period of up to 3 months for systematic violations of labor discipline, absenteeism without valid reason, or coming to work in an intoxicated condition. The paragraph on dismissal has been slightly expanded. This measure can be applied (in addition to the generally known reasons) in those cases where a worker is

absent from his work place for more than 3 hours in one day without valid reason, and also for coming to work in an intoxicated condition. An explanation is required here: not only failure to appear at work for an entire day, but in equal measure failure to appear for more than 3 hours without valid reason, is regarded as absenteeism. The measure of liability is the same in both cases.

Workers and employees who are absent with valid reason will have their next vacation cut by the number of days that they were absent. However, vacations cannot be less than 12 working days.

The readers' attention should also be drawn to the fact that throughout any period of disciplinary penalty, incentive measures are not applicable to the worker. This is also something new in the Standard Rules.

[Question] When do the new Standard Rules take effect?

[Answer] Since the day of confirmation, 20 July 1984. The Standard Rules for internal procedures for workers and employees at enterprises, establishments and organizations have the force of law. On their basis the ministries and administrations are obliged to publish sector rules with the agreement of the appropriate central (or republic) trade union committees.

The rules have as their purpose to promote the indoctrination of workers and employees in a spirit of communist attitudes toward labor, the further strengthening of labor discipline, the organization of labor on a scientific basis, the rational use of work time, high quality work, and improved labor productivity and efficiency in social production.

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CSO: 1828/24

LABOR

BETTER SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC LABOR UTILIZATION PROPOSED

Moscow SOTSIALISTICHESKIY TRUD in Russian No 8, Aug 84 pp 89-95

[Article by L. Chizhova, candidate of economic sciences, chief of sector of Scientific-Research Institute of Economics attached to Gosplan USSR: "How to Better Utilize the Labor of Different Social-Demographic Groups of the Population"]

[Text] In solving problems of raising efficiency of labor in the national economy at the present stage, a differentiated approach to study of the labor activity of different sex and age groups of the population is achieving major importance at certain periods of their life and work.

In their studies, we isolated four periods of labor activity through which, as a rule, any person passes. Accordingly, the population groups determined were: young people (16-29 years of age), middle-aged people (30-49 years old), people of pre-pension age (50 years of age or older), retirees due to age (women 55 years of age or older and men 60 years of age or older). Of course, it is possible to differentiate within these large groups smaller subgroups characterized by one level or another of education, type of vocational training, ability to adapt to changes in production and conditions of labor and to move from one sphere of activity or sector of the economy to another. But we settled in this case on such a combined grouping in order to analyze the most general tendencies in this field.

For the last quarter of a century, the employment level in public production of the country has been quite stable for social-demographic groups (see Table).

People of middle age (30-49 years old) were characterized by the highest indicators. The difference in the employment levels of men and women was somewhat reduced. The lowest level of employment in public production continued to exist among young people, inasmuch as studies occupy a major place in the activity of this sex and age group as a necessary condition not only for raising the educational level of the entire population but also for improving the vocational and skill structure of the work force. Worker cadres are renewed with young people, and training proceeds of specialists of

middle-level and top technical personnel and of the managerial staff. This entire rather large group can be subdivided into two subgroups: students and working youth.

Level of Employment for Social-Demographic Groups (in %)*

Year	Youth (16-29)	Middle age (30-49)	Pre-pension age (50 or older)	Retirees of pension age (men 60 or older, women 55 or older)		
					Men	Women
1959	78	80	70	23	89	69
1970	74	93	80	13	88	82
1979	76	96	84	11	87	84

* Based on population census data.

The 1979 population census showed that of all young people aged 16-29 about three-quarters worked at state enterprises, institutions and organizations. More than 20 percent studied full time with separation from production. The biggest portion of the students belongs to the 16-24 age group. About one-third of these are in school.

In "Basic Directions of the Reform of General Educational and Vocational Schools," approved by the Plenum of the CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Supreme Soviet in April 1984, provision is made for a significant improvement in the use of students' labor potential. "While providing the high level of knowledge required for continuation of study at a VUZ," it states in the document, "the school at the same time must direct youth to socially useful labor in the national economy and prepare them for this."¹ This means that labor education should be considered both as a most important factor in the forming of an individual and as a means of satisfying the needs of the national economy for manpower.

Due to the urgency of the problem of speeding up scientific-technical progress, the question is raised of more thorough study and substantiation of proposals for optimizing distribution numbers of youth into those who are working and those who are studying. It is important to take into account that study is a mandatory requirement for attaining a higher qualitative manpower level. The higher the general and vocational training of a worker, the more efficient can his employment be in the national economy

1. "Materialy pervoy sessii Verkhovnogo Soveta SSSR odinnadtsatogo sozyva" [Materials of the First Session of the 11th Convocation of the USSR Supreme Soviet]. Moscow, Politizdat, 1984, p 49.

throughout his working career and the more long lasting can this working period be. As materials of the 1979 population census showed, for example, among men and women older than working age, those who have a high educational level continue to work significantly more frequently. Thus if in the 60-64-year age group as a whole 29 percent work, 54 percent of the latter have a higher education. Among women 55-59 years of age, 29 and 46 percent respectively continue to work. Consequently, a higher level of education determines greater work activity among the older ages.

It is well known that at the present time a rather high level of general education of youth has been attained. But it is no less well known that education and accumulated knowledge are still being insufficiently rationally combined with training for labor in public production. Almost 40 percent of the youth entering working life do not have vocational training, which cannot help but reduce the effectiveness of their labor.

In the course of implementation of the reform of the general educational and vocational school, it is planned to significantly expand the training of qualified worker cadres in the vocational and technical education system and to carry out a transition to universal vocational education of youth.

The solution of problems of education and employment of youth means that both study and employment of the youth should contribute not only to the attainment of the highest level of cadre skills and growth of labor productivity in the given period but also to better retention of working capacity in a person to the end of his working life and the ensuring of necessary conditions of reproduction of the population. We believe in this connection that the question of load which arises in connection with broadly practiced full-time studies without separation from production is in need of additional investigation. In the 1981-82 school year, 43 percent of the students studied without discontinuing work at higher educational institutions, 37 percent--at secondary specialized schools and almost 17 percent--at vocational and technical (technical) schools. About 46 percent of the total number of pupils of day (9th-10th-year classes) and evening classes studied at evening (shift) general educational schools. On the whole, the share of those who combine work with study included approximately one-third of all the pupils. First, the quality of general-educational training and study of qualified workers and specialists while continuing work is inferior to training at day divisions, which is particularly important in the mastery of complex modern vocations and specialties. Second, the excessive load carried by youth who both work and study cannot but help subsequently affect the health of the person and family and connubial relationships.

It is important to analyze from scientific positions with the involvement of a broad group of specialists correlations of day and evening or correspondence education and training developed in practice. It is also important to objectively understand what is more effective: a high level of employment in public production during the young years or a certain "postponement" for the purpose of obtaining a good vocational and sound general-educational training at fixed educational institutions while young in order to increase labor yield in middle and senior age when a person has much educational experience.

In our view, the interests of intensive development of the economy and an effective demographic policy require that the training of qualified workers and specialists is carried out as a rule full time with separation from production. Of course, such a course leads to a reduction in the number of workers for the national economy. At the present time, about 5 million persons 16-29 years of age are studying while continuing to work. It is possible to compensate for these losses by using more widely the labor of students on a part-time workday basis at a time free from study. This makes it possible to more successfully provide for the needs of sectors of production and the service sphere in sectors where simple, low-skilled and manual operations are still retained. According to ball-park estimates, the engagement of student youth in certain kinds of work on an hourly basis would make it possible to have several additional millions of laborers. Sociologists and psychologists point out that a young worker is more eager to go to work at work places with unfavorable working conditions if he knows that his employment in the given case is of a temporary character.

Among the basic directions of rationalizing the use of labor of youth while taking into account the aims of demographic policy, an important role is played by improvement of the conditions and character of labor. In the given case, we have in mind speeding up of the elimination of heavy manual labor, mechanization of the production process and creation of comfortable conditions at each workplace. The main course here is being freed of obsolete equipment and the introduction of progressive technology and organization of labor.

In the national economy, a significant amount of equipment is underutilized due to the fact that its ergonomic features do not correspond to the increased demands of workers on the conditions and maintenance of labor. Owing to the growth of the standard of living and education in the selection of a vocation, especially by the youth, the foreground is being increasingly assumed by the prestige value of these or those jobs, the possibility of vocational improvement, favorable conditions of labor and the like. Retention of obsolete equipment in the national economy in no way meets the growing social needs of workers.

A very important direction in the rational use of labor of youth is elimination of disproportions in the allocation of male and female youth within the boundaries of the various regions, as well in the national economy sectors. This is particularly manifested in rural localities. In addition, the composition of youth by sex differs significantly for the republics. Thus, in villages of the greater part of the European territory of the country, there are considerably more young men than women.

Disparity in the composition of youth according to sex, other conditions being equal, creates additional difficulties in the establishment of families, results in lower indicators of the birth rate and increases the drain of young people from the countryside. And it is precisely the growing need for young machine operators that characterizes today the cadre situation in rural localities, especially in the Nonchernozem Zone of the country. The problem of balancing job positions according to sex can be resolved only by the creation of qualified workplaces for women in the rural public economy.

In cities of the European part of the Russian Federation, the Ukraine, Belorussia and the Baltic republics at first glance no special problems exist. The proportion of men and women of young ages here is practically identical, with a slight predominance of women. But certain difficulties frequently arise because predominantly male or predominantly female sectors and occupations have arisen. This in itself is natural. But when persons of one sex or the other predominate significantly at an enterprise, this not only limits the opportunities of young people finding a marriage partner, but also impairs the psychological climate in the collective.

Other problems arise in the cities and rural localities in the Central Asian republics. Migrants from the countryside to the city in these republics strongly differ in their makeup from migrants in the European part of the country. Whereas in the RSFSR, the BSSR, and the UkSSR girls are the first to leave rural localities, in Central Asia it is young men who primarily move to the cities. For this reason, in the republics of Central Asia, it is necessary to intensify attention on increasing the vocational education of the indigenous population, especially of young women. This will help accelerate change in the traditional way of life and will promote a more active movement to cities not only of young men but also of young women. Of course, it is important to develop a sufficient number of employment spots in order to effectively employ them, as well as take account the specific character of the groups arriving from rural regions.

The social-demographic group making up the able-bodied men and women of 30-49 years of age is characterized by a high level of employment in the public economy. For the past 20 years, practically everybody in this group of the population has been working. Such a situation is natural inasmuch as after 30 a vocation as a rule has been definitively chosen, production experience has been acquired, a place of work has been established, migratory mobility has been reduced (compared to young people) and most have a family. In other words, a most effective period of work life sets in for a person. Consequently, great possibilities of increasing the effectiveness of functioning of production are to be found in the use of labor of this group. But in expressing concern to derive the greatest yield from this social-demographic group, it is important to base this on the need to retain a sufficiently high level of labor capability in the subsequent group past the age of fifty.

Analysis of employment of persons of middle age on the basis of sectors and occupations provides the possibility of determining those directions along which it is possible and necessary to improve the use of labor of this group.

A distinctive feature of persons of middle age is that they are primarily employed in jobs requiring high occupational mastery which was acquired due to the influence of practical experience rather than just education. Such jobs as a rule are highly paid. Persons of 30-49 years of age constitute the majority among managers of industrial enterprises, construction, agriculture and forestry, transport, communications and their structural subdivisions (shops, sectors and the like). Engineers and technical personnel are to be included here. In the enumerated categories of specialists, the relative share of a given age group in 1979 was more than 65 percent. The proportion

is also high of persons 30-49 years of age among those employed in managerial posts in sectors of the service sphere (more than 55 percent). They constitute a significant portion of workers with high qualifications (more than 50 percent in some occupations). Persons of 30-49 years of age more frequently than other workers are employed in physically heavy labor, which may also involve complicated procedures. This, in the aggregate, is responsible for their high earnings (basic occupations in the extractive and metallurgical industry, transport and the like), although these people frequently do not have a complete secondary education.

Under conditions of scientific-technical progress, for the more effective utilization of the labor of this group, significant importance is to be attached to the advancement of vocational skills that are attained through periodically conducted retraining, including acquisition of new vocations. At the same time, for many individuals it is important that vocational training be combined with general education.

For the purpose of conserving the earnings and work capability of persons of middle age in those cases where unfavorable working conditions exist, the development of new production processes and the introduction of robotic equipment is of pertinent significance. Under normal working conditions, it is important to strive for greater effectiveness in work and rest, greater useful yield and reduction of worktime losses. Special attention should be directed to those sectors and sections where the greatest danger from injury exists.

For a large part of the population of this sex and age group, specifically for women with infant children, the question of eliminating overloads connected with upbringing of children and the maintenance of a household is quite acute. What solutions could be proposed here? First of all, it is important to continue the policy of developing the service sphere and standardizing working hours in service institutions and to employ more widely flexible forms of working time.

A special place in the forming of the country's labor potential is occupied by the age group of the able-bodied population of 50 years of age and older. This is the generation, which was born in the years of a high birthrate and which lived through the war as children without taking part in military operations. The employment level of this age group drops significantly compared to the preceding group of the population, which cannot be considered positively from the point of view of utilization of the labor potential.

What are the characteristic features of the labor activity of people who are older than 50 years of age? How has the development of the national economy in recent years influenced the employment structure of the able-bodied population? Thus the entire period following the '60s is characterized by a significant growth of spheres of application of labor for these ages. Scientific-technical progress has produced a significant easing of working conditions for many types of jobs. This has expanded the possibilities of people of older ages to take part in public production, utilizing their knowledge and occupational experience. Their share has grown among workers employed in industry, construction, transport and communications.

For workers older than 50 years of age, major interest is presented by sectors of cultural, cultural and personal services from the point of view of the sphere of application of labor. The development of these sectors, especially during the '50s, took place rapidly. The number of jobs grew which respond to the needs of a significant portion of persons of the older age groups for labor conditions and work regimes. At the same time, a need at the present time exists in sectors of the service sphere for both skilled and unskilled labor.

Although consideration of questions of easing working conditions has not been reduced, there is still to be observed at the present time among workers of the older ages the leaving of public production before the onset of the officially prescribed time of going on pension on the basis of age, namely owing to working conditions. In 1982, almost three times as many pensions were granted under preferential conditions as in 1972. People of pre-pension age are not always able to change their type of work for one that is more acceptable for their years with respect to conditions of labor. Insufficient information exists in regard to those occupations where it would be possible to use the experience and knowledge obtained in the time of prior working labor life. But this is not the only reason to explain their lower level of employment in the public economy compared to other age groups. In a number of cases, workers older than 50 need a change of labor regimes. This change could be eased by the Labor Placement Bureau.

It has been customary to approach employment of pension-age retirees in two ways: first, from the position of an additional source of manpower and second, from the position of maintaining a certain vigor in elderly people. Labor within one's capacities and participation in social life help people of pension age to maintain active longevity.

For that portion of pensioners who want to change the type of occupational activity, recommendations should be developed for the most practicable change of labor. For the time being attempts are made with the aid of pensioners to primarily "plug gaps" and to use their labor in low-skilled, so-called nonprestigious jobs, attracting them with all forms of legal and sometimes not quite legal benefits and supplementary payments.

For the long term, this "course" is completely unacceptable not only because the relative share of highly educated and skilled people among population older than employment age will also grow because of the forthcoming sharp rise in the proportion of men. And as shown by experience, male pensioners agree to take nonprestigious, low-skilled jobs much less often.

It is impossible not to take into account the consideration that the size of the examined age group will increase only in the city. As a result, by the year 2000, the relative share of the city population in relation to the total population of individuals above working age will have grown significantly. This will reduce numbers of pensioners with a low level of education.

For the republics, the highest share of persons of older than working age for the long term will evidently be in industrially developed republics where the population has a higher level of vocational training. This means that by the

year 2000, the educational level of pensioners will have greatly grown, especially with respect to the first five years following the onset of pension age. Whereas prior to the 1979 census, among men of the first five pension years about 56 percent had elementary or lower than elementary education, by the year 2000 the share of such persons will have significantly decreased. The proportion of women with elementary or lower than elementary education will also be reduced.

Studies of the Scientific-Research Institute of Economics show that measures for recruiting pensioners for unskilled jobs (simultaneous payment of pensions and wages) are producing an increasingly smaller effect, although the funds spent for these purposes are considerable.

During the years of the 11th Five-Year Plan following the adoption of additional measures for bringing in pensioners into the national economy, the growth rate of the number of working pensioners according to data of the USSR Central Statistical Administration rose insignificantly. To a certain extent this is due to the fact that the makeup of pensioners has changed (with respect to education, qualifications and work experience) and, furthermore, people are less drawn to unskilled jobs, although significant material benefits have been provided for such types of labor. At the same time, the problem of job placement of pensioners with a high level of education and special training is becoming more frequent and more acute. They wish to continue to work in their field of activity but naturally with a reduced load. The fact is that you are not going to offer to a research engineer the job of a storekeeper! For this reason we should now be dealing with more rational utilization of the labor potential of highly skilled workers.

How and where should the labor of those pensioners by reason of age who want to work be used? Under what conditions? The guiding line here should be those changes that have occurred in the allocation of persons of older than working age in the past 20 years (1959-1979 according to materials of the population census) to sectors of the national economy and occupations. They reflect trends in change in living arrangements of the population of pension age. Under the influence of a higher living standard and growth of education and skills, interest of pensioners is reduced in jobs connected with physical labor. During the indicated period, the absolute size and relative share of pensioners engaged in physical labor have been reduced. Thus, while in 1959, 93 percent of workers retired due to age were engaged in physical labor, in 1979 the figure was already 72 percent.

A constantly growing portion of people of older than working age is being concentrated in sectors of the service sphere. According to data of the 1979 population census, more than 47 percent of all people of this age group were working in sectors of the service sphere, while in 1959 only 16 percent of them were employed here. During this 20-year period, the highest growth rates in the number of employed pensioners were in science, management, health care and education. In sectors of material production, reduction of the number of employed pensioners was observed in industry and agriculture.

As for the type of occupations for persons of older than working age, a certain polarization is characteristic, depending on the level of their

education and qualifications. The concentration of persons of older ages in positions of scientific workers as well as of physicians and VUZ instructors is justifiable and natural since these occupations come under mental labor of the highest skill, which makes high demands not only on the educational level but also on the practical experience of personnel in this field. In our opinion, this tendency will be retained over the long term.

Among such occupations, there are to be found positions of managers not requiring high (VUZ) training of the personnel (for example, chiefs of procurement and supply organizations, chiefs of Administrative and operational departments, apartment managers and the like). The average level of education of these categories of personnel fluctuates from 9.7 to 11.3 years, which corresponds to training within the scope of secondary school or tekhnikum. It should be noted that this group of occupations is not distinguished by a high level of attraction for young people. Consequently a real possibility exists to utilize pensioners here in the next 10 years. In a more remote perspective, with a rising organizational and technical level of the sphere of management, supply and services and with a rise in the level of requirements for the qualifications of these categories of personnel, it apparently will become possible to make wider use here of specialists of younger age.

Experience shows that use of the labor of pensioners retired due to age is most effective in their direct specialty, of course, if they continue to meet the demands made on them by the nature of the work and the position. A work-regime change is acceptable in case of partial loss of working ability. The use of the labor of pensioners coming from the sphere of mental work in unskilled plain jobs weakens in some degree the need for mechanization and automation of labor processes, reduces acuteness of the problem and in addition leads to underutilization of the capabilities and experience of pensioners. As yet there are still many people of pension age engaged in elementary labor and at low-skilled and unprestigious jobs. The 1979 census showed that 40 percent of pensioners by reason of age are concentrated in low-skilled jobs employing 10 percent of all physical-labor workers. Basically, this is unskilled labor in the service sphere (cloakroom attendants, janitors, charwomen, guards, watchmen, container washers) and a number of agricultural occupations (stable hands, pig tenders, auxiliary workers in animal husbandry). It should be pointed out that in the past 10 years, the number of older-age persons in such occupations has practically not increased. Over the long term, the rise in the living standard of the population and its level of education will achieve the practical result of reducing the contingent of those who will have for their basic work unskilled-labor occupations. Among people of pension age, an increasing stimulus in work is becoming not only the need for additional earnings but also the desire to employ accumulated knowledge and vocational experience, to continue their beloved work, to socialize with their friends and to share their store of knowledge with youth.

It should be noted, however, that motives of a material character continue to remain dominant among a significant portion of middle-level workers (cashiers, office managers, middle-level medical personnel and so on). The wages of these personnel are lower than for other categories; consequently, the pension is also lower, and this creates the need for additional earnings. These jobs apparently can continue to be performed by pensioners.

In dwelling briefly on the special features of employment of different social-demographic groups of the population in public production, we wanted to draw attention to the need for a differentiated comprehensive approach when solving issues concerning the provision of a more rational use of the total labor potential of society.

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LABOR

NARROWING THE GAP BETWEEN PHYSICAL, INTELLECTUAL LABOR

Moscow PLANOVOYE KHOZYAYSTVO in Russian No 6, Jun 84 pp 92-100

[Article by N. Blinov, doctor of philosophical sciences, professor:
"Erasing the Line Dividing Physical and Intellectual Labor"; passages
rendered in all capital letters printed in italics in source]

[Text] In order to solve the tasks posed by the CPSU for the systematic and comprehensive improvement of developed socialism at the contemporary stage, the most important socio-economic prerequisite is the requirement for profound changes in the key area of the life of man and society--the area of labor--and with respect to this, the social structure of our society. This was the question discussed at the June CPSU Central Committee Plenum held a year ago, and also at the session of the CPSU Central Committee Commission on preparation of the new edition of the Party Program in April 1984. As General Secretary of the CPSU Central Committee K.U. Chernenko noted, "In the new edition of the Program it is appropriate to speak of a classless socialist society, one of the most important landmarks in the development of the new social and economic formation. And at the same time it should be stressed that the leading force in the establishment of the classless social structure was and is the contemporary working class."¹

The development of social labor is an objective process. To a certain extent it is taking place continuously. One of the most important tasks on the way to social labor uniformity is the problem of convergence; and then organically merging physical and intellectual labor in the activities of the workers in various branches of the national economy, and in the various spheres of material and intellectual production.

At the dawn of building socialism, V.I. Lenin wrote: "Clearly, in order to completely eliminate classes, it is necessary not only to overthrow the exploiters, landowners and capitalists, and not only abolish THEIR property; it is also necessary to abolish ALL private ownership of the means of production; it is necessary to eliminate both the difference between the city and the countryside, and the difference between persons who perform physical and intellectual labor."²

The building up of developed socialism in our country, and the transformation of a socialist social system into an organic entity, have led to the elimination of the contrasts between physical and intellectual labor. However the solution of this historically significant socio-economic problem

does not at all mean that the complete organic unity of the two most important kinds of labor has already been achieved. The important distinction between them will remain for the duration of the lengthy historical period of the formation of a classless social structure. Moreover, here one must bear in mind both the economic aspect of erasing the dividing lines between intellectual and physical labor, and the ideological-moral aspect: inasmuch as eliminating the social-class differences in essence means overcoming the differences between workers who are employed predominantly at intellectual and predominantly physical labor.

At the mature stage of socialism the progressive changes in the economic parameters of social labor and the nature of the labor activities of the people take on new qualities and scope under the influence of the system of factors which has already arisen on proper socialist grounds. During this period the principal links in the chain of objective conditions of the development of socialist labor into communist labor are the socio-economic factors which are directly connected with: changes in the material basis of labor; the inner substance of man's productive activity, filled with its creative quests and opportunities; and reduction of the proportion of monotonous, unskilled manual labor and hard physical labor, as the achievements of scientific and technical progress are more intensively combined with the advantages of socialism.

Overcoming the existing differences between workers engaged in physical and mental labor is accomplished and should be accomplished primarily by virtue of continuously putting into operation the achievements of science and technology, advanced technology, and rational utilization of the country's scientific and technical potential.

The given situation was stressed at the June (1983) CPSU Central Committee Plenum: "...In order to increase production efficiency it is necessary to sharply reduce the use of manual labor, principally by means of overall mechanization. Widespread utilization of robots is radically changing the situation in the area of labor productivity, especially in those sectors of production where they are still using manual labor and hard physical labor or low-skilled and monotonous labor. This will make it possible for hundreds of thousands of people to work in other, more favorable conditions, and to receive more satisfaction from their labor... This approaches the solution of one of the basic tasks of communist construction--the task of overcoming the existing differences between intellectual and physical labor."³ CPSU Central Committee General Secretary K.U. Chernenko made reference to this in his speech at a meeting with the voters on 2 March 1984, in which the task was set "...to ensure the rapid and continuous renovation of all branches of the national economy on the basis of contemporary achievements of science and technology... Without this social progress is simply unthinkable."⁴

The measures currently being implemented in the USSR are directed toward eliminating manual, low-skilled and hard physical labor, and monotonous and painstaking work, in order to make the work of man not only more productive but also more interesting, substantial, and creative. These measures are

being worked out taking into consideration current problems in the introduction of new equipment and technology and in the conflicting nature of the scientific-technical revolution itself. The modern scientific-technical revolution is changing the substance of labor everywhere; it is making it more complicated and filled with intellectual operations. The sphere of unskilled and predominantly hard labor is becoming narrower all the time; at the same time, there are increasing demands on the worker and on his level of educational and professional knowledge.

In a systematically organized and proportionally developing society, the directions for scientific and technical progress are selected on the basis of the needs of society. Mature socialism is opening more favorable opportunities for rendering a conscious influence on and implementing effective control over the process of development of technology, and for foreseeing the anticipated social consequences of its introduction. The leading factors of the influence of society on changes in the scientific-technical area are primarily the prevailing socio-economic relations, the economic and social policy of the state, the nature of its foreign relations and international division of labor and, indisputably, the technological level of the development of production itself and the degree of development of its scientific organization. This is one aspect of the dialectical interrelation of society and technology. Another aspect is connected with the conflicts in the changing social role of technology, which is not evaluated in the same way in establishing the progressive elements of the nature, content, conditions and organization of both physical and intellectual labor.

The most important result of the influence of new technical means on the life of society is increasing the productivity of social labor. Among the basic directions of the influence of technology on society, I would like to single out the specialization of the means of labor, which brings about the specialization of branches of production, which represents the technical basis for the division of labor. Affiliated with this is the increasing degree to which human labor functions are replaced by technical means, which leads to specialization of industrial operations and the liberation of human potential, with new combinations in the methods of joining man and machine.

The mechanism and the direction of the social consequences of the introduction of technological innovations, and the overall nature of the interaction of scientific-technical and social progress are directly dependent on the peculiarities of the socio-economic conditions in which the contemporary scientific-technical revolution is taking place. Rejecting as principally unacceptable the conceptions of the fetishism of technology and the promotion of the social consequences of NTR [Scientific-Technical Revolution] as a direct result of its nature, we note that the nature and the content of labor do not have a direct correlation with the availability of machinery and introduction of new technology. These factors determine the development of labor processes only as a whole, in the final results, and in the tendencies and forms of the manifestation of the scientific-technical and socio-economic contradictions in labor activity.

The growth of labor productivity as a result of assimilating the achievements of scientific and technical progress is indisputable. The introduction of new technology and measures on scientific organization of labor

have, on the whole, assured the growth of labor productivity in industry during the years of the 11th Five-Year Plan. This growth, as the primary and ultimate factor of the influence of technology on social progress, is based on increasing the specialization and transformation of labor functions, which has a more direct effect on the changes in the substance of the activities of those employed in intellectual and physical labor.

Further improvement in the nature of socialist labor under the influence of the scientific-technical revolution is determining the increase in the degree of man's freedom, which manifests itself principally in the fact that people, according to their calling, aptitudes and capabilities, as well as the level of their education and vocational training, may with an ever-increasing degree of confidence choose the sphere of activity which pleases them, whether this means employment at physical or intellectual labor. There is also a process going on of constantly expanding the actual opportunities of each person for overall development of their capabilities, as well as the conditions for greater freedom in becoming oriented in various spheres of activity. One of the significant indicators of the expansion of the limits of freedom is the increasing tendency among workers employed at both physical and intellectual labor to constantly increase the degree to which they understand the social significance of labor.

Whereas the nature of social labor under socialism, its universality, its degree of collectivization and social homogeneity, and scientific-technical progress, have an oblique effect--more likely through their social consequences, which have passed through the prism of socialist production relationships--its effect on the nature of specific kinds of labor activity is felt much more tangibly and in a more direct fashion. At the same time that aspect of labor which pertains to the interaction of man and technology is brought to the foreground. The changes which are taking place in the "man-machine" labor subsystem are leading to a transformation in the makeup and content of labor functions, while the indicators which reflect the changes in the content of the labor process can serve as the general characteristics of the progress of labor activity on the whole under the influence of scientific-technical progress.

The general trends of the improvements in the content of labor have been sufficiently studied. The trends for progressive development of labor on the basis of increasing the complexity and enriching the structure of its significant functions are prevailing, in spite of all the contradictions of technical progress. In a developed socialist society the qualitative makeup of the workforce improves noticeably, and the positive processes in the system of professional division of labor undergo intensification, which inevitably entails intensification of social dislocations. However, labor becomes richer in content and more complex on the whole, with respect to the workers in aggregate; but within the framework of individual specialties the labor of an individual worker may become more complex and become richer in content; on the other hand, for others it becomes simpler. Statistics testify to the fact that more than 50 per cent of the professions which currently exist in the national economy of our country were altogether unheard of as little as 30 years ago. But the fact is, that the existence

of various types of labor (manual, completely or partly mechanized, or automated), as well as further introduction of the achievements of the scientific-technical revolution leads, on the one hand, to the growth of professions involving complicated, skilled labor; and on the other hand requires a greater number of auxiliary workers, assembly-line workers, etc.

At the modern stage, the most visible improvements in labor content are found among workers employed at physical labor in the sphere of material production. According to economists, the process of changing the functional content of labor becomes more intense with a high level of mechanization, especially with a transition to an overall phase of mechanization. This can be clearly seen at the level of society as a whole and in the example of certain enterprises.

There is a steadily-increasing number of workers in our country employed at mechanized and automated labor, for whom the organic combination of the functions of physical and intellectual labor is becoming characteristic (This concerns in particular the professions of repairmen, machine-tool setters, machine-tool and automatic equipment setup men, and other similar specialties). Analysis of the data of specific sociological research projects conducted in various regions of the country from 1976 to 1982 on the topic, "The Social Functions of Labor," which involved 10,000 correspondents who represent various groups of workers in professions of physical and intellectual labor in the city and in the country, showed that there is a tendency for outstripping growth rates in the proportion of workers employed at mechanized and automated labor, and also those occupied in setting up and repairing machinery (Table 1).

Table 1

Changes in the Personnel Staff at Moscow Machine Tool Building Plants
Depending on the Level of Mechanization of their Labor from 1965-1982

Groups of Workers By Specific Type of Activity	Proportion of Total Number of Workers, %		Rates of Change in Proportions Over the Years 1965-1982, %
	1965	1982	
Who Work:			
With the Aid of Machinery and Mechanisms; Also, Monitoring Operation of Automatic Equipment	34.2	56.8	166.0
On Repair and Setting Up Machinery and Mechanisms	9.5	14.6	153.6
Manually, with the Aid of Machinery and Mechanisms	31.1	15.2	48.9
Manually, without the Aid of Machinery and Mechanisms	25.2	13.4	53.5

Along with the generally favorable situation which has come to pass with respect to average annual rates of decline in the proportion of heavy and unskilled manual labor, as well as in the growth of mechanized and automated labor, one can observe a certain fluctuation or retardation, which may be explained by a poor state of balance in basic and auxiliary operations.

Improving the implements of labor, modifying the equipment which is being maintained, and qualitative changes in the subjects of labor will lead to changes in the quantitative measures for intellectual and physical operations. According to our observations, electricians spend more than 65 per cent of their worktime on operations which involve predominantly intellectual labor. Modifying the labor of workers employed in material production is becoming one of the most important features of technical progress under socialism.

Building developed socialism in our country is also marked by the spread of the introduction of the achievements of the scientific-technical revolution in agriculture and its transition to methods of industrial production; in the expanded introduction of the positive features in the content of the profession of agricultural labor; and in modifying the nature and the structure of the labor functions of the kolkhoz workers, who must no longer be identified only with workers who perform physical labor. The modern stage of development of the material basis of kolkhoz production can be characterized as a transition from partial to overall mechanization: basic field work is totally mechanized; in horticulture, industrial-type operations have the leading role; and overall mechanization has been accomplished for such production operations as harvesting grain and industrial crops; care and feeding of cattle, hogs, and poultry; and so on. At the very same time, in animal husbandry the ratio of equipment available per worker is significantly lower than for work in the fields, although the level of mechanization of labor on animal farms is increasing noticeably.

Enriching the nature and the content of labor, and overcoming its lack of social homogeneity creates favorable opportunities for raising the skill and educational level of the workers, and encourages their participation in technical creativity; that is, it promotes the improvement of the personal qualities of those employed in socialist production and at the same time creates new opportunities for developing the humanistic functions of socialist labor, and overcoming the differences between those workers employed at physical and intellectual labor.

Another aspect of this phenomenon is, that automatization and mechanization of the production processes, the introduction of new technology and new kinds of raw material and energy, and the increase in the complexity of labor operations, present new demands on the workforce. Increasing professional, skill and educational levels, continually refreshing one's knowledge, and high mobility are now becoming integral features of the conditions for reproduction of the workforce. In order for social production to function successfully, it is necessary to train and reproduce a workforce suitable for it, both in a quantitative and in a qualitative respect; to develop labor organization and to work out the appropriate stimuli for more intensive and more productive labor.

One of the indisputable advantages of the socialist system is its assurance of uninterrupted and rapid growth of the skills of all categories of workers. Both the acquisition and the systematic increase of skills is organized and assured under a socialist state.

Sociologists and economists have determined that the level of professional training and skills of the workers has a direct influence on the level of labor activity, labor productivity and other objective indicators of labor activities. According to data from research conducted at enterprises of light industry in Moldavia, the greatest percentage of waste takes place among young workers up to 22 years of age, among whom 34.2 per cent possess low skill levels--in the first and second class. In the machine-building sectors of the nation up to 70 per cent of the waste and 30 per cent of the breakage of instruments occurs because of insufficiently skilled workers, who were trained for the most part in the individual and brigade training system; more than half the cases of damaged equipment occur among workers in the second and third skill categories, who have been trained on the job. Thus, improving the skill level of the workers is becoming one of the most important tasks.

Transforming the skill structure within individual specialties, professions, production teams, and entire socio-professional groups, classes and so on, is taking a rather difficult and at times contradictory route. The results of investigations reveal that the rate of decline of the proportion of low-skilled and unskilled labor for basic operations is three to four times higher than for auxiliary operations. Among a group of agricultural workers the proportion of those whose skill-category was not increased over the last three years was twice as high as among workers employed in industrial work; although one in five of the latter group did not show progress in skill category either.

It is difficult to overestimate the social significance of the changes taking place in the skill makeup of the workers; these changes embrace representatives of all professions and specialties. Analysis of the real processes which are taking place in this sphere provide a basis for the following conclusions: first, that skill, at the stage of developed socialism becomes to an ever-increasing degree the indicator of the nature of specific kinds of labor activity, with the help of which one can evaluate and measure the degree of influence of scientific-technical progress on overall changes in the content and nature of both individual and social labor; it will also reveal the directions of professionalization and specialization of labor processes, and establish a number of key points for the interaction of technical and social progress; secondly, accelerating the rates of skill growth will lead to increasing the degree of correlation in the level of skill to the nature of the work being performed (On the whole, such a correlation is significantly higher among professions of intellectual labor than in the sphere of physical labor). At the very same time, in a number of professions in industrial and agricultural labor, primarily physical labor, as well as in the labor activities of a scientific nature the parameters of the incongruence of the actual and the required skill level not only remain significant and extremely perceptible both on the side of increase and on the side of decrease, they also continue to show a trend for intensification.

Thirdly, the differences in skill are also found within professional groups and among the basic strata and groups of the working population, which leads to the convergence of the working class, the peasantry and the intelligent-siya, and work on the whole becomes more homogeneous in a social sense.

A socialist society displays interest in the development of the capabilities and in the spiritual growth of all its members, the kind of work at which they are employed notwithstanding. A representation of the course of the process of overcoming the differences in educational level among workers occupied at physical and intellectual labor is given in Table 2.

Table 2

Educational Level of Workers Occupied at Physical and Intellectual Labor

	1939	1959	1970	1979	1983
Of 1,000 people, the following number had higher and secondary (partial or complete) education, and were employed predominantly at:					
physical labor	45	325	543	732	801
intellectual labor	515	896	953	981	985

The increased growth rate of the educational level of workers occupied at physical labor is readily apparent. Between 1939 and 1983 the number of persons with higher and secondary education increased by a factor of 17, which brought them significantly closer in terms of their educational level to the group occupied at intellectual labor, overcoming the previously-existing gap. Whereas in 1939, for every 1,000 working people, the proportion of those employed at intellectual labor, who possess higher and secondary education, exceeded the proportion representing physical labor but with the same educational level, by almost a factor of ten; in 1983 the factor was only 1.2. Hidden behind these statistics are the fundamental changes in reducing the differences in educational level and individual aspirations to receive an education and consequently, growth in the spiritual needs of the Soviet people as well, the manner of their employment notwithstanding. This is an enormous achievement on the socio-economic plane. Further convergence in educational level is one of the important directions for overcoming the remnants of social distinctions between intellectual and physical labor.

Proportional to the increase in the cultural-technical and educational level of the workers and the introduction of the achievements of scientific and technical progress, creative functions are achieving predominance in the labor activities of the Soviet people; this is to a considerable extent brought about by the skillful utilization of the results of the scientific-technical revolution in the sphere of labor. An orientation toward creativity, as analysis of the research results indicate, is becoming one of the predominant influences in the consciousness and behavior of the various social groups in a developed socialist society (Table 3).

Table 3

Results of Poll of Workers of Various Social Groups
for the Purpose of Ascertaining their Orientation
toward Creativity

(Total number of persons polled--10,000)

(Data represent percentage of those polled)

Nature of Response	Groups Polled					
	Average Aggregate by Choice	Workers				
		Indus- trial	Agri- cultural, Kolkhoz	Engineer & Technical	White Collar	Scien- tific
Prefer work requiring independent develop- ment, a quest, use of creative wit	57.7	54.9	36.0	68.2	48.6	81.0
Prefer work in which everything that must be done is regulated, precisely defined . . .	18.1	20.6	48.0	8.2	14.5	6.3
Undecided	16.0	16.7	9.2	16.9	30.4	7.2

Analyzing the data received, I would like to stress once again that in order to turn work into a source of pleasure, realized as an inner need, the tasks must be solved harmoniously for developing human capabilities and for forming a creative attitude toward work; and labor itself must increasingly be turned into a creative activity in terms of its content and nature. One must also take note of the fact that on the average, almost 60 per cent of the workers studied are oriented toward the creative aspects of work. And this is characteristic not only for scientific and engineering-technical workers, but also for representatives of the working class (in industry), among whom the proportion of people with creative orientations approach the average indicators. Moreover, in their proportion they exceed by a factor of 2.5 the number of workers who expressed a preference for strictly regulated, noncreative work. It is indicative that over a period of 15 years the number of workers at the Moscow enterprises studied who have predominantly innovative interests has increased by 17 per cent.

It is natural to assume that in the course of the social transformations in our society and on the basis of introduction of the achievements of the scientific-technical revolution to production those workers engaged in physical labor will change their present attitudes in favor of a prevailing orientation toward creative work, and that there will be expanded opportunities for employment in creative types of activities.

Combining intellectual and physical labor in production activity is still no guarantee that labor will become man's primary need. Liberation from hard, manual, unskilled labor and attraction to jobs which require intellectual efforts in and of themselves do not signify that an individual has an open field for creativity. There is physical labor and there is intellectual labor. But there is also creative and fulfilling labor which is associated with monotonous repetition of one and the same operation. Only the former may be turned into a steadfast need. As for the latter--and its volume is growing rapidly with progress in technology--it is tolerable in relatively small doses, but is tiring and inefficient (We are speaking primarily about operations associated with assembly-line work; work with computers; work requiring long periods of intense concentration, and the like--which may be programmed and transferred to machines). The prerequisite for making labor man's primary need is liberating man to the maximum from unproductive expenditure of physical, intellectual and nervous energy, eliminating the professions of mechanical labor (both physical and intellectual), or inasmuch as its complete elimination is practically impossible, dividing it equally among all the workers.

And if one speaks of a harmonious combination of physical and intellectual efforts in human activities, in the Marxist conception it follows, in our opinion, that in order to create the conditions for the victory of communist labor one must begin with activity at a whole, and not simply with one of its parts--labor activity. And the material prerequisites for this process take shape in a mature socialist society only under the influence of the development of the productive forces; the scientific-technical revolution is opening new opportunities for qualitative changes in the social division of labor, and for expanding the scope of activities of the law of labor change.

Scientific projects of recent years indicate that due to the enrichment of the content of the professions of physical and intellectual labor, which is the objective prerequisite for increasing the overall degree of satisfaction from labor, a chain of factors was begun, the operation of which is directed toward improving the way of life of the representatives of the various kinds of labor, and bringing together their needs, their interests and their outlook on life. Therefore, one must not reduce the problem of erasing the dividing lines between physical and mental labor in current interpretations to merely overcoming class distinctions. It should be a question of perfecting the organization, the conditions, the content matter and the quality of labor, and improving its attractiveness and effectiveness.

Solving this problem is frequently related merely to the sphere of physical labor and material production. But to no less degree it pertains to the fastest-growing sector of our society--that of workers engaged in intellectual labor, including scientific labor. And here the problem is felt very extensively. In order to ensure large returns from the enormous funds which society has invested in the development of science and education, it is first of all necessary to eliminate the irrational expenditure of time by highly-skilled workers for various kinds of auxiliary operations. Currently it is necessary to train more para-technical personnel, to expand production and use of office equipment, to bring about concentration of scientific

research and planning-designing subdivisions, which will permit eliminating unnecessary duplication, and unproductive expenditure of time, resources and efforts in the many minor organizations.

Under conditions of mature socialism one must not be limited by a narrow conception of the process of establishing social homogeneity of labor in the form of separately-operating trends for intellectualization of physical labor and making intellectual labor more technical. Here, in principle, purely arithmetic approaches are neither appropriate nor possible, inasmuch as the most complex interaction of a dialectical nature is taking place in social activity: both physical and intellectual labor are changing and are taking on new qualities; they are becoming different and are mutually benefiting one another--which entails a significant reorganization of the structure of social labor as a whole. Labor to an ever-increasing extent is becoming the creator of products which are not the result of individual, direct labor, but are the results of a combination of social activity.⁵

One must stress that at the stage of developed socialism, the general progressive tendency for increasing the share of intellectual labor not only in material production but in all other spheres of human activity as well, finds its objective manifestation predominantly in the following forms: it occurs primarily in both the absolute and in the relative growth of the number of persons employed at intellectual labor; on the other hand, physical labor of the workers and peasants is becoming filled with intellectual functions; and a gradual convergence of the functions of physical and intellectual labor is going on. Technical-technological improvements in production and the growth of the cultural and technical level of the working people are important factors in this convergence. Success in overcoming the existing distinctions between physical and intellectual labor depends to a significant extent on the nature and the depth of the interaction of the processes described; this is one of the key questions of the socio-economic policy of the party: it will receive further theoretical substantiation in the new edition of the CPSU Program, which is under development.

FOOTNOTES

1. PRAVDA, 26 April 1984.
2. V.I. Lenin, "Polnoye sobranie socheniniy" [Complete Works], Vol 39, p 15.
3. "Materialy Plenuma Tsentral'nogo Komiteta KPSS, 14-15 iyunya 1983 g." [Materials on the CPSU Central Committee Plenum, 14-15 June 1983], Moscow, Politizdat, 1983, p 11.
4. K.U. Chernenko, "Narod i partiya ediny" [The People and the Party are One], Moscow, Politizdat, 1984, p 10.
5. K. Marx, F. Engels, "Sochineniya" [Works], Vol 46, Part II, pp 207-208.

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LABOR

DIFFICULT LIVING CONDITIONS IN FAR NORTH DESCRIBED

Moscow SOVETSKAYA ROSSIYA in Russian 26 Aug 84 p 2

[Article by Ye. Gontmakher and N. Denisov, candidates of economic sciences, Moscow, under rubric "Problem for Discussion": "The Northern Coefficient"]

[Text] One of our acquaintances, a young specialist, is leaving for North. He is not concealing his reasons: he wants to earn enough for a cooperative apartment, and if possible, a car also.

"I'll work for about five years, and then I'll be back."

The fact that people -- mostly young ones -- go to the trans-polar area in the hope of getting high pay for their labor is not surprising or reprehensible. The living and working conditions in the northern area are not easy, and the larger wages are a necessary "compensation" for rejecting the "conveniences" of the middle and southern latitudes. Actually, as a person crosses the Arctic Circle his wages immediately increase substantially because of the coefficient. As the person's longevity increases, his wages continue to grow: the so-called northern differentials are added onto the person's wages.

There is a rather large number of people who want to "get a taste" of what life is like in the North. But, far from all of them withstand the test: more than half of those who go to jobs beyond the Arctic Circle go back to the "mainland" during the first year. Why? That is the subject that will be discussed below.

Unbought Deficit

Sociologists have computed that in order to keep a single worker in the Far North for at least 3-5 years, it is necessary to attract a minimum of 5-6 people, because rosy plans, subjective ideas about the "romantic North" are one thing, but the harsh northern reality is something else. Newcomers, upon arriving at their new place of residence, begin to compare not only the climate and the wages, but also the housing and everyday living conditions, and the social and cultural services provided. And that comparison in far from all instances is to the advantage of the North.

We might note that this comparison is not groundless. Take, for example, the rate of provision with housing. Whereas, for the RSFSR on the average, one city resident has 13.5 square meters of total (usable) area, in Magadan that figure is 12.6; Yakutsk, 11.4; and in Petropavlovsk-Kamchatskiy, only 10.7 square meters. And that is despite the fact that in the Far North (and in the areas that have been equated to it), under the conditions of the long frozen winter and the polar night, the need for housing -- by which we mean comfortable housing with all the amenities -- is higher than in the central zone and especially in the southern part of the country.

Let us turn once again to statistics. On the average, for every 100,000 Northerners there are 42 libraries, but in the RSFSR as a whole, there are 45; there is an analogous situation with regard to club houses: 46 per 100,000 persons living in the Far North or areas that are equated to it, as compared with an average of 55 for the RSFSR. The situation is even worse with sports structures -- swimming pools, sports fields, riding schools, etc. Today everyone realizes that these proportions should be changed. The territorial remoteness from major cultural centers, and the dispersal of people chiefly in small settlements that are isolated from one another, require a rate of provision with cultural and sports institutions that is higher than that on the "mainland." This is also important because the people who have been going to the North have been chiefly young ones, who need an outlet for their energy not only in the production sphere. Here is only one fact that has been recorded by sociologists: largely because of the insufficiently developed sphere of cultural-educational services, and the shortage of sports structures and other places where people can spend their free time, the rate of social participation among the people living, for example, in Nizhnevartovsk, is considerably lower than that of the places where they used to live.

Naturally, wherever it is difficult to spend one's free time in a meaningful manner, there is an increase in the danger of manifestation of antisocial phenomena, particularly drunkenness.

At a definite stage in the assimilation of the North, certain shortcomings in everyday life were inevitable. In the 1930's, when the trans-polar area was being assimilated, the chief task was the satisfying of the needs of the national economy. Our capabilities in the resolution of certain cultural and everyday problems were limited.

In 1956-1961 the basic principles were developed for instituting the regional regulation of the payment of labor, which continue to be in effect to this day, and which provide for coefficients and differentials to be added onto the basic wages. That has helped to increase the influx of workers to the northern latitudes, but, obviously, it could not eliminate the basic cause of the poor rate of retention of the newcomers there -- the certain lag in the rate of provision with housing and in the social and cultural services. Unfortunately, one continues today to encounter a few people who feel that all one has to do is to resolve the question of wages, and everything else will solve itself: people go to the North temporarily, they say, and then, after they have earned a certain amount, go back to the "mainland." Why make an unnecessary fuss, they ask.

Actually, many people do go the trans-polar area only for a short period of time. But does that mean that they are ready to be satisfied only with good wages? Of course not. For a person who has decided to give the Far North several years of his life, it is necessary to create the conditions not only for his temporary stay, but also for his normal life, on and off the job. High wages alone will not guarantee high labor productivity: a person always works better if everyday living problems are not bothering him. Otherwise, if he is unable to satisfy his social and spiritual needs, a person involuntarily gets swept up in the wave of consumerism. Is it possible, in such a circumstance, to have high labor efficiency, or the intensive use of every pair of working hands, of which there is such a shortage in the North? And so the vacancies are always filled by mechanically attracting the largest number of people from the Big Land. Yet, people's self-interest in the results of their labor could substantially reduce the shortage of personnel in the trans-polar area, and could become an important element in the labor-saving policy in those regions.

We are convinced that the North should attract people not only by the possibility of their earning good wages, but also by the guarantee that they will have a comfortable life under those very severe conditions. And it is here that we should dwell in somewhat more detail.

Should Expenses Be Based on Income?

As has been indicated by computations, the overall level of payment for labor in the Far North differs less and less from the average indicators for the USSR as a whole. This is explained by the fact that during the past 20-25 years the most dynamic growth in wages has been precisely in those branches of the national economy which, practically speaking, are not represented beyond the Arctic Circle. It is also necessary to consider the fact that in the North there is practically no income from people's private plots, whereas in the more southerly regions of the country the average family of workers and employees derives from that source more than 3 percent of their total income, and for the family of a kolkhoz member, approximately 30 percent.

If one speaks about the family budget, one cannot disregard the fact that beyond the Arctic Circle the share of persons who are not employed in the national economy is higher than in many other regions of the country. These are, for the most part, nonworking wives of northerners. For example, in Norilsk alone, there are 3000 nonworking wives. To a considerable degree this situation is explained by the fact that production in the North is narrowly specialized and is designed primarily for male labor.

Another item that involves considerable expenditures for northerners is vacations. In order to fly, for example, to Moscow and back, a family of four (two adults and two children) needs a considerable amount of money. Once every three years the round-trip travel expenses are paid by the government: that benefit does exist. Is that the reason why many northerners accumulate their vacations over the three-year period, and then take a half-year trip to the "mainland"?

At first glance, there is nothing wrong with this kind of vacation. But that is only at first glance. Medical science tells us that this kind of vacation does not always yield the desired effect with regard to recreational benefit, and for certain people it is completely undesirable.

Finally, if one considers the wages paid to northerners, one cannot ignore the increased expenses that are incurred by people living beyond the Arctic Circle for the purchase of food, warm clothing, the payment of housing and municipal expenses, etc.

"The further rise in the standard of living of the northerners, like that of the rest of the Soviet citizens, must proceed primarily on the basis of the development of social consumption funds that presuppose that benefits which the person cannot accumulate to form a reserve for himself or take away with him," I. S. Aristov, Norilsk Mining and Metallurgical Combine deputy director of personnel and social development feels. He is right: there are scarce benefits which a person cannot buy, however high his wages may be. The 26th party congress included among them children's preschool institutions and many everyday services, in a word, everything that has been given the name of the social infrastructure.

Different Alternatives Are Possible

It is not difficult to go to the trans-polar area: all it takes is the desire, the appropriate occupation, and the attraction to that stern land. However, getting back from there to the "mainland" is not as simple. And what we are talking about here is no nostalgia for the Far North -- although that does exist -- and not only the difficulties involved in leaving one's friends and one's favorite job, but in what is absolutely the most trivial detail: the northerner frequently doesn't have anywhere to go!

"How can that be?" the reader might ask. "What about the place where he was born and where they are registered?"

But tell me, would you like to return to a dormitory or to your parents, which is where a northerner may have left to go to the Far North? A lot of people leave a nice apartment in the center of the country or in the south, in order to go to the Far North. In addition, after working 5-10 or more years in the north, a person settles down and raises a family, and those "square meters" that he left behind as a bachelor are no longer adequate for him.

Only two alternatives remain: a cooperative apartment on the "mainland" or an exchange.

And so it's the cooperative.

We would like to quote an excerpt from the 19 August 1982 Decree No. 765 of the USSR Council of Ministers: "[It has been decreed] to grant the right to organize housing-construction cooperatives for the purpose of building apartment buildings in all the populated points on the territory of the USSR, other than the capitals of the union republics, the cities of Moscow and

Leningrad, Moscow Oblast, and resorts subordinate to USSR and republic-level organizations, to persons. . . [including] workers and retirees who have worked in areas of the Far North or in localities that are equated to areas of the Far North for no less than 10 years."

"Where's the problem?", one might ask: if you work 10 years, deposit the money and you'll get an apartment. As for the northern longevity that is needed for getting into the cooperative, usually no difficulties arise if the person has withstood the first 2-3 years. That means that he will work 10 years, especially if, after he hits that goal, he should be able to return to the "mainland" with an apartment. But in actuality things usually turn out to be much more complicated.

The number of cooperatives that are being organized is still so small that people sometimes have to wait several years to get in. The principal reason for this situation, in our opinion, frequently lies in the lack of desire on the part of the local Soviets of People's Deputies on the "mainland" to grant northerners the opportunity to build apartment buildings or to accept them into cooperatives.

"We wrote to 40 cities, asking them to provide cooperative construction for those who have worked in the North more than 10 years. All the cities refused," I. S. Nikonenko, general director of Urengoygazdobycha imeni S. A. Orudzhev Association complains.

To a certain degree one can understand the lack of desire on the part of the local Soviets on the "mainland" to link up with the northerners: they already have sufficiently intensive plans for housing construction -- including cooperative housing -- for their own population. But there is no way in which one can justify this lack of desire by referring to "objective" causes.

A person who has honestly given to the Far North 10 or more years of his life is worthy not simply of respect, but also of special attention for his needs. Especially since he himself is ready to pay for the apartment that has been offered to him on the "mainland."

But could it be that the northerners are asking for something impossible? No. One should not think that they are dreaming only about the Northern Caucasus or the Ukraine. A study of the geography of the desired exchanges indicates that many people in Norilsk, for example, would like to go to more southerly areas of their very own Krasnoyarsk Kray, to the Altay, the Urals, and to the central zone of the European part of the RSFSR.

We received an unusual document from Talnakh -- a city near Norilsk. In it more than 300 persons discuss their attempts to make an exchange on the "mainland."

"Additional payments have actually been legalized: the exchange notices use the words 'as agreed upon,'" mining foreman Anatoliy L'vovich Gluskin (work longevity in the North 10 years) states.

How much are they asking for?

"I can offer my one-room apartment on the eighth floor of a nine-story building. If you know what the exchange will cost you, we can make an exchange. My terms: exchange + ten. . .", is the statement made in a letter from the city of Nikolayev in the Ukraine. Appended to the letter is a diagram showing the one-room apartment with kitchen and corridor, and a neatly drawn double line encircles the 10,000 rubles additional payment for the exchange that is offered.

The amount asked for Novosibirsk is 3000, and for Sochi, as much as 25,000.

If you make the decision to that kind of "exchange," "you are left without a shirt on your back," Iosif Nikolayevich Stanislavskiy, who gave 16 years to the North, writes.

And yet, on the "mainland," people do go on living -- both before they get a pension, and after they get it. Therefore it is far from everyone who is taking this step. The search for an "acceptable alternative" stretches out for years.

Do the northerners deserve these obstacles? It would seem not. And it is a matter here not even of various decrees or instructional guides which are not being fulfilled completely, but rather in the very attitude toward people. The production ministries and departments have an exceptional self-interest in assigning working hands permanently to the trans-polar areas and they have been displaying a large amount of energy to assure this. However, their self-interest subsequently, when the person has already arrived in the North, drops noticeably -- and that is what causes the numerous complaints concerning the shortage of housing, of institutions providing public services, of certain commodities that are needed in these parts of the country, etc. And, finally, this self-interest disappears almost completely when the time comes for the people to go back to the "mainland."

Is it possible to systematize the cooperative construction for the northerners? It would seem so. For example, why not introduce a definite "northern" percentage of the constructed cooperative apartments in the oblasts, krays, and autonomous republics on the "mainland"? For those who worked 15 or more years in the North, it would obviously be desirable to propose another alternative. Its essence is rather simple: turn over an apartment, for example, in Norilsk and get an equivalent one in Sverdlovsk. This resolution of the problem, it seems to us, will be doubly advantageous: first, more of the housing fund will be freed for the persons newly arriving in the Far North, and secondly, there will be yet another incentive for accepting a job in the high latitudes -- people will be convinced that, after the stipulated period of time, they will be able to return calmly to their hometowns. We might add that the "spontaneous" exchange of northern apartments is unsuitable from the government's point of view, since, as a result of that kind of exchange, the scarce and expensive northern apartments (the cost of housing there is much higher than on the "mainland") frequently go to people who are not particularly needed by the trans-polar areas.

Obviously, it is high time to create a special service under the Soviets of People's Deputies in the rayons of the Far North, which service would deal with questions of resettlement on the "mainland." That service could assume the responsibility of resolving the problems linked with cooperative construction, with organized exchange, and, finally, the moving of people into governmental housing and the location of jobs for former northerners.

The labor contribution of the northerners to the development of our country's national economy is difficult to exaggerate. It will grow even more in the future -- as our national economy makes a further shift into the northern and eastern oblasts. It will continue to be necessary to assimilate the North intensively, and it is people who will do that.

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EDUCATION

STATE COMMITTEE CHAIRMAN REPORTS ON VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Moscow PROFESSIONAL'NO-TEKHNICHESKOYE OBRAZOVANIYE in Russian No 7, Jul 84 pp 2-5

[Article by N. Petrovichev, chairman of the USSR State Committee on Vocational and Technical Education, under rubric "Let's Implement the Party's Decisions!": "A New Stage in the Development of the Vocational School System"]

[Text] Vitally important problems in the further development of the system of vocational and technical education were discussed at a joint session of the expanded board and Learned Council of the USSR State Committee for Vocational and Technical Education, which was on 18 May 1984 in Moscow in the October Hall of the House of Unions.

Participants in the work of the expanded session of the board were First Deputy Chief of a department of the CPSU Central Committee, S. G. Shcherbakov; USSR Minister of Education M. A. Prokof'yev; USSR Minister of Higher and Secondary Special Education B. P. Yelyutin; AUCCTU Secretary L. A. Zemlyannikova; All-Union Komsomol Central Committee Secretary I. I. Ordzhonikidze; department chief, CPSU MGK [Moscow City Committee] N. Ye. Kislova; chairman of a trade-union Central Committee V. S. Kuz'michev; responsible workers of the CPSU Central Committee, USSR Council of Ministers, AUCCTU, and the Central Committee of the All-Union Komsomol; and administrators of a number of ministries and departments.

A report at the joint session of the expanded board and Learned Council of the USSR State Committee for Vocational and Technical Education, entitled "The Results of the April 1984 Plenum of the CPSU Central Committee and Measures for Fulfilling the Decisions of the Plenum of the CPSU Central Committee and the Instructions of General Secretary of the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet, Comrade K. U. Chernenko, and the Implementation of the 'Basic Directions for the Reform of the General Educational and Vocational School System'", was given by Chairman of the USSR State Committee for Vocational and Technical Education N. A. Petrovichev. The following is an abridged version of his statement.

The CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Council of Ministers have approved the Basic Directions for the Reform of the General Educational and Vocational

School System, which contain the development of the scientifically substantiated concept of the instruction and indoctrination of young people and the preparation of them for life and labor under present-day conditions.

The reform of the general educational school system, which was adopted by the party and broadly supported by the Soviet people, represents an important component part in the planned, complete improvement of developed socialist society.

The school reform has been called upon to raise the work of the general educational and vocational schools to a qualitatively new level, to eliminate the shortcomings existing in their activities, and guarantee the provision of the students with a thorough mastery of the principles of the sciences, the development in them of firm communist convictions, industriousness, and moral purity, and the indoctrination of them in the spirit of love for our socialist multinational Motherland and the readiness to defend it, in the spirit of proletarian internationalism.

The carrying out of the reform will make it possible to achieve a fundamental improvement in the labor indoctrination and vocational guidance of the schoolchildren on the basis of the unification of instruction and productive labor, and to improve the training of skilled work cadres in the vocational and technical schools, and to augment the universal secondary education of young people by universal vocational education.

The recently published decree of the CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Council of Ministers, entitled "The Further Development of the System of Vocational and Technical Education and the Increasing of Its Role in the Training of Skilled Work Cadres," was a new and brilliant manifestation of the concern shown for our system and for the young replacements for the working class.

In conformity with the reform, it is planned within the next few years to achieve an approximate doubling in the number of graduates of the incomplete secondary school who are accepted into secondary vocational and technical schools. There has been a considerable expansion in the training of workers in new occupations that have been engendered by scientific-technical progress. In the newly established uniform type of educational institution -- the "secondary vocational and technical school" -- all the necessary conditions must be assured for enabling the young people to acquire -- in addition to a level of skill -- general secondary education, to develop their various capabilities, and to develop their readiness and ability to take active part in production, sociopolitical, and other spheres of activity.

These tasks are by no means easy or simple ones. Their resolution will require taking the complete consideration of many factors, including the psychological ones. It will be necessary to do a lot to achieve the fundamental improvement of the entire instructional and indoctrinational process, to create a new material-technical base, to train engineer-pedagogical cadres, to raise the level of methodological and scientific support, and to improve the work style.

It was precisely on the basis of these basic tasks that the board of the USSR State Committee for Vocational and Technical Education developed comprehensive measures for carrying out the decisions of the April 1984 Plenum of the CPSU Central Committee and the principles and conclusions contained in the statements by Comrade K. U. Chernenko, and the implementation of the Basic Directions for the Reform of the General Educational and Vocational School System. Those measures set down the chief directions that the work will take, named the specific immediate executors, and indicated the deadlines.

Similar plans, with the maximum amount of concreteness, for actions must also be developed at every state committee, administration, and educational institution. It is necessary to guarantee the active participation in those measures of the ministries, departments, enterprises, agroindustrial associations, and public organizations. And the most important thing is, without any shillyshallying, to begin immediately to carry out the work of implementing them.

The entire job of implementing the reform should be begun by informing every collective, every worker, every student in our system of the principles and conclusions contained in the statements made by General Secretary of the CPSU Central Committee, K. U. Chernenko on the questions of the school system, the indoctrination of youth, and the training of youth for labor, as well as the decisions and materials of the Plenum of the Central Committee and the session of the USSR Supreme Soviet, the significance of the reform, and the requirements of the decrees of the party and the government. It will be necessary to achieve a situation in which each one of them knows where his place is, and what he must do to carry out the reform, and by what deadlines. For this purpose it is necessary to make good use of classes in the party-enlightenment system, lessons, especially in the social disciplines, and broad forms of nonclassroom work.

Within the near future USSR State Committee for Vocational and Technical Education will have to prepare a large number of documents that are linked with the carrying out of the reform, dealing with the reorganization of all the existing vocational and technical educational institutions into a uniform type -- the secondary vocational and technical school. It is also necessary to proceed from the assumption that we are dealing not simply with changing the name on the sign, but the creation of a fundamentally new type of vocational and technical educational institution. It will be necessary to be concerned about their most efficient structure, which conforms to the peculiarities of the specific city and rayon, to resolve questions of reinforcing them with worthwhile cadres, and to guarantee that this will be accompanied by a reduction in the size of the administrative apparatus. It is also necessary to resolve more actively the questions of transferring the departmental vocational and technical schools to our system.

The creation of the new type of secondary vocational and technical school must be augmented by a higher level of content in their work. For that purpose it is planned to carry out measures to achieve the fundamental improvement of the educational-indoctrinational process as the leading link, which concentrates within itself the organic unity of instruction, education, and indoctrination,

instructional and nonlesson work on the basis of the achievements of pedagogical science, scientific-technical progress, new technical capabilities, and the skill level of the engineer-pedagogical cadres, with broad interaction with the family, the general educational school, the public, and labor collectives.

In the light of the tasks that evolve from the school reform, it will be necessary to raise the level of general educational training, to guarantee the solid mastery of the principles of sciences, to achieve an improvement in the quality of the students' knowledge in conformity with the uniform requirements for general secondary education, and to link more closely together the instruction of the general educational subjects and the occupation for which the person is being trained.

In the light of the tasks evolving from the school reform, it will be necessary to raise the level of general educational training, to guarantee that students have a solid grasp of the fundamentals of the sciences, to achieve an improvement in the quality of the students' knowledge in conformity with the uniform requirements made of general secondary education, and link the instruction of the general educational subjects more closely with the occupation being acquired.

A definite amount of interrelationship between the general educational and vocational training in the system of vocational and technical education has been accumulated, and this, to a large extent, contributes the complete development of the students and to improvement of the quality of training of skilled workers. At the same time, the general educational training of the students in the secondary vocational and technical schools does not yet completely conform to the present-day requirements. Little use is being made of the advantages of the improved curricula, and the vocational directedness of the instruction of the general educational disciplines is insufficient.

Something that is especially alarming is the fact that frequently the students' actual knowledge does not conform to the grades that have been given to them. For example, in secondary vocational and technical schools that were inspected in Vladimir Oblast, only 22 percent of the students coped with the control assignments in chemistry, and 53 percent in the Russian language, despite the fact that, according to the reported progress in those subjects the figures were, respectively, 99.3 percent and 99.5 percent. Unfortunately, such instances occur in schools in other regions of the country also. In this regard the local administrations and the educational institutions also have something that they can do more work on.

Special attention should be devoted to the study of Russian in the secondary vocational and technical schools, where the instruction is given in the national languages. It is necessary to intensify this work by making broader use of up-to-date technical means for accelerating the instruction.

Much will have to be done to raise the level of the students' vocational training, and to assure the more thorough study of the technological, agronomic, and other special disciplines that reveal the tendencies and prospects for scientific-technical progress. Our schools have at their

disposal tremendous opportunities for the most complete carrying out of the principle of the combining of instruction and productive labor. Last year, in the process of production instruction and practical work in production, the students fulfilled a volume of work with a total value of 1680 million rubles, including the production of output and the rendering of services in the school workshops themselves with a total value of almost 95 million rubles.

Recently the List of Occupations according to which the workers are trained in the schools was expanded, chiefly by means of the inclusion of new complicated occupations, including those linked with the servicing and adjustment of equipment in flexible automated production entities. Out of 1500 occupations in the List, approximately 600 are occupations with a broad area of specialization or are combined occupations. By last year 27.3 percent of the graduates of secondary vocational and technical schools were trained in two or more occupations.

However, it must be admitted that we are not yet engaging with sufficient meaningfulness in the questions of training the work cadres that are linked with the resolution of the tasks of scientific-technical progress, with the comprehensive mechanization and automation of production that is being carried out at enterprises, with the saturation of that production with industrial robots, and with the broad use of electronic technology.

Unfortunately, we also have situations when, upon arriving at their work stations, certain graduates of vocational and technical schools cannot confirm the graduation categories to which they have been assigned.

The brigade form of the organization of labor and the provision of incentives for it is currently becoming, under conditions of production, one of the chief forms in the resolution of the very important task of increasing the labor productivity and indoctrinating the workers. However, not all the production training foremen or instructors are teaching the students the essence of cost accountability, or imbuing them with the necessary practical skills required for thinking in economic terms, for analyzing production activity, or for the economical expenditure of raw and other materials and electrical energy.

The agencies and educational institutions of vocational and technical education constantly devote attention to the ideological-political, labor, and moral indoctrination of the future workers, to their physical and esthetic development, and to the guaranteeing of the comprehensive approach to the indoctrination of youth.

An important place here is given to the social disciplines, and to the intensification of their ideological effect upon the students. At the same time, the level of instruction of the disciplines that develop a political philosophy does not always conform to the requirements that are made. Inspections at the vocational and technical schools in Nikolayev and Chimkent oblasts have shown that in many classes the questions of Marxist-Leninist theory are presented by the instructors in a simplified, superficial manner, the content and objective nature of the laws of social development is revealed with insufficient thoroughness, and their class essence and political

directedness are revealed insufficiently. Many of the instructors of the principles of economic knowledge and the political economy do little to use the opportunities provided by the courses to raise the level of vocational training of the students, or to imbue in them a love of the vocation that they have selected or an economical attitude to the public's property. As a result the students fail to develop the necessary practical skills required for the skillful application of economic knowledge in practical activity and also fail to develop an intolerant attitude toward shortcomings, poor business practices, or squandering.

Many vocational and technical schools have not succeeded in achieving the organic unity of instruction, education, and indoctrination, the exertion of collective and individual effect upon the students, or the combining of the efforts in these matters of the family, the public, and the labor collectives. This leads to manifestations of lack of ideological steadfastness and lack of discipline, and to violations of instructional and labor discipline.

In order to achieve a fundamental reorganization of the entire work of intensifying the communist indoctrination of the upcoming shift of the working class and in order to eliminate, on that basis, the negative manifestations and violations of the law among students, it is necessary to take serious steps to increase the responsibility borne by the administrators of the agencies and instructional institutions in vocational and technical education, and the reliable scientific and methodological support of the preventive work. Something that requires special attention is the further development of interaction with the law-enforcement agencies. All the elements of the instructional and indoctrinational process, the entire social life of every instructional institution, all the questions linked with their workaday and everyday life must work to overcome the negative manifestations that exist in the midst of the students.

In this regard our engineer-pedagogical collectives must devote more attention to the development of the initiative of the students' trade-union and especially their Komsomol organizations and to the increase of the spontaneity and responsibility of the students' self-government.

Large additional opportunities for intensifying the indoctrinational effect of the engineer-pedagogical collectives at the schools are being created by the material incentive that has been introduced -- material incentive for work in dormitories -- and the establishment, in conformity with the reform, of a new institution -- the permanently assigned instructor and class leader. At the present time it is exceptionally important to coordinate correctly the efforts of the production instruction foreman and the instructor, and the other workers at the schools in organizing all the indoctrinational work in the students' group, especially during their nonclass time.

The CPSU Central Committee and the Soviet government have given the agencies of vocational and technical education a completely new task of tremendous economic, social, and political importance -- the task of guaranteeing in the future the gradual doubling of the number of graduates of the incomplete secondary school who are admitted into secondary vocational and technical schools.

With a consideration of the needs of the national economy for work cadres and the peculiarities of the individual regions, the city and the village, for the country as a whole approximately 40 percent of the graduates of grade 9 will have to continue their education in our system. Defining the new, higher tasks in increasing the volumes of training of skilled workers in the system of vocational and technical education, the party and government also created all the necessary conditions and prerequisites for their successful fulfillment. In particular, they provided instructions to the local Soviet agencies, when developing uniform plans for the distribution of graduates of the incomplete secondary school and the secondary general educational school in current years, to stipulate the staffing of our schools in conformity with the admission plan.

Measures are also planned for improving vocational guidance, and for developing and reinforcing the schools' material-technical base. In the resolution of these questions there has been an increase in the responsibility of the ministries and departments, and the base enterprises. All these factors should be used in practical work, and more initiative, persistence, efficiency, and responsibility should be demonstrated.

It is necessary in 1984 and in 1985, for every oblast, for every school, to define the specific measures for eliminating the lag that has occurred in the training of skilled workers, especially for the agroindustrial complex and the construction organizations.

It is necessary at such time to proceed from the instruction of Comrade K. U. Chernenko that was expressed at the April 1984 Plenum of the CPSU Central Committee, to the effect that "... it will be correct if all of us, if each one of us, prohibits himself from easing up in any way. Concern -- or, one might even say, alarm -- for the state plan must not leave for a single minute. So let's come to an agreement: for every disruption, for any incompleted jobs that occur this time, the demand must be stricter than ever before. Our party position cannot be otherwise."

The fulfillment of the plans for admission and training of young skilled workers in the system of vocational and technical education largely depends upon the correct organization of vocational-guidance work, and upon how we succeed in increasing the prestige of our schools.

During these days and months, on the basis of the principles in the reform, we must carry out, in a more energetic and more thought-out manner than ever before, the work of staffing the schools. It is necessary to establish closer contacts with the agencies of enlightenment, with the schools, and to involve veterans, the public, and especially the Komsomol more broadly in this matter. It is necessary to improve the propagandizing of our schools and the conditions for receiving instruction in them, and to show that students in PTU [vocational and technical schools] currently are granted rights to admission to an institution of higher learning which are equal to those of students in the secondary school.

Recently exhibitions of the students' technical and artistic creations have become an interesting form of propagandizing our schools. One such exhibition that was held not too long ago is the 33rd republic-level exhibition in Latvia, which has already become traditional. It was visited by members of the Buro of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Latvia, headed by the first secretary of the Central Committee. A recommendation was made to organize in Riga a specialized store for displaying and selling the objets d'art and consumer goods manufactured in the republic's vocational and technical schools. This experience deserves broad dissemination. Something that has become a good, effective form of this work in Georgia is the practice of having a number of the republic's institutions of higher learning sponsor students in the vocational and technical schools.

A large amount of assistance in propagandizing the system of vocational and technical education and in increasing its prestige has been rendered by the agencies of the press, radio, and television, and the creative unions. Recently a nationwide competition for the best radio and television broadcast about vocational and technical education came to an end. That competition was attentively followed by millions of television viewers and radio listeners.

The successful implementation of the principles stated in the school reform with regard to the expansion of the training of young workers in the system of vocational and technical education requires the corresponding development of the material-technical base. As is well known, the decree of the CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Council of Ministers for the 12th Five-Year Plan specifies a major program in this regard. It will be necessary to activate accommodations for 778,000 students, and a large number of dormitories, dining halls, and sports complexes.

However, in the current five-year plan the building of vocational and technical schools is being carried out unsatisfactorily. On the part of the state committees in the republics, and the kray and oblast administrations, there must be an intensification of the work with the appropriate ministries both as customers, and as contractors for activating the new schools. When resolving the tasks of building the new schools, we are obliged to strive for the better, more effective use of the existing capacities. We have large reserves in this regard.

The reform stipulates cardinal measures for the training and retraining of the pedagogical cadres in the system of enlightenment and vocational and technical education, and for providing material and psychological incentives for their labor. In particular, it will be necessary to take steps to expand the training of teachers (instructors) and educators in pedagogical institutes; to achieve the further development of the engineer-pedagogical departments (sections) at the institutions of higher learning; and to expand in them the area of specialization for the training of specialists.

We are entrusted with a special responsibility by the statute that gives preferential admission to higher educational institutions in the engineer-pedagogical specialists to graduates of secondary vocational and technical schools and persons in the category of working youth who have a production specialty and an aptitude for pedagogical activity.

It is necessary to engage more purposefully in involving in work as production instruction foremen various production specialists, labor veterans, and advanced personnel in labor, for which the good prerequisites have already been created. It is necessary to think carefully about organizing training with them, in order to study pedagogics and psychology, the present-day achievements of the corresponding branches of production, and the methodology for providing production instruction and indoctrination to the students.

Responsible tasks have been given to the system of vocational and technical education with regard to the improvement of the work that is linked with raising the proficiency level of our cadres. The lead scientific-methodology center in this area will continue to be VIPK [All-Union Institute for Improvement of Qualifications].

A decision that was perceived as a measure that is of great political, economic, and social importance is the decision of the CPSU Central Committee, the USSR Council of Ministers, and the AUCCTU concerning the gradual increase in the salaries paid to teachers and other workers in public education. That decision will affect 350,000 engineer-pedagogical workers in the schools and the instructional methodology labs, including the inspectors at the oblast administrations of vocational and technical education. In close relationship to the providing of material incentives, which is being planned not only as a whole but also with regard to a number of elements in labor activity, measures for providing psychological incentives are also planned.

A system of salary differentials is being introduced, starting on 1 September 1984, for engineer-pedagogical workers at all educational institutions. The measures for providing material and psychological incentives, as was already mentioned, are supposed to contribute to improving all the work involved in the selection and assignment of cadres.

All this enables us to reinforce substantially the makeup of the cadres, and to bring into the job of training and indoctrinating the young worker replacements those workers who are truly well-trained, experienced, and worthy of this high mission. It is necessary to be concerned about the creation of an effective cadres reserve.

The quality of the instruction and indoctrination of the future workers largely depends upon skillful and prompt methodological support. A special responsibility here lies upon the VNII [All-Union Scientific-Research Institute] of Vocational and Technical Education and the VNMTsentr [not further identified] which are obliged to establish the scientifically substantiated correlations between general-education and vocational-technical training and to provide for the maintaining of the close organic interrelationship between instruction and indoctrination, and among general, polytechnical, and vocational education.

Together with the USSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences it will be necessary to organize the more clear-cut planning and coordination of research, and to develop and introduce a scientifically substantiated program of indoctrinational work in the new uniform type of school; the pedagogical principles of the interrelationship between the general-educational subjects

and the subjects in the vocational and technical cycle; the theory and methodology of the comprehensive application of technical means of instruction in the teaching process; and a number of other questions. It is necessary to involve the scientific-research institutes of the ministries and departments more broadly in the research of the problems of training skilled workers.

A large contribution to the resolution of the tasks that have been defined by the reform will be made by the Learned Council under USSR State Committee for Vocational and Technical Education.

Many questions linked with the preparation of new textbooks and the development of training-methodology documents and scientific studies will be of a comparatively prolonged nature.

However, certain organizational measures and materials of methodological support which evolve from the requirements of the reform must begin to operate starting with the new 1984-1985 school year.

That is why we must prepare especially carefully and in a businesslike manner, and must carry out at a high level, the August pedagogical conferences. At those conferences it is necessary to consider carefully what has been done to prepare for the new school year under the conditions of the implementation of the reform, that is, to sum up in a practical way the first results of the course of carrying out that reform.

It will be necessary to define concretely what we shall introduce in the instructional-indoctrinational process from the requirements of the reform, what we shall correct and what we shall supplement, and what worthwhile concepts can be extracted from the instructional process.

When speaking about indoctrinational work it is necessary to consider how the requirements of the decree of the CPSU Central Committee, entitled "Additional Measures for Improving the Ideological-Political Indoctrination of the Students in the Vocational and Technical Education System" (1982) have been fulfilled.

In all this work it is necessary to take into consideration the fact that the classes in September of this school year are supposed to begin in a new type of educational institution that has been created on the basis of the reorganization -- the secondary vocational and technical school -- where more favorable opportunities will exist for better staffing, the optimal work load placed upon the production-training equipment, and the efficient use of experienced engineer-pedagogical cadres.

By the beginning of the school years the schools will be sent new curricula for 250 different occupations; lists and corrections to the existing curricula for subjects in the vocational and technical cycle and for production instruction; and instruction-methodology letters concerning the instruction of the social and general educational subjects, the technical disciplines, and production instruction. For all categories of students, a new subject is being introduced -- "Programming Principles and Computer Technology." This will promote the guaranteeing of the universal computer literacy of the

students, and the studying by them of the principles of electronic-computer technology and microcomputer equipment that has been equipped with microprocessors.

A nationwide holiday -- Knowledge Day -- will be celebrated for the first time on 1 September 1984. On that day there will be solemn ceremonies with the participation of war and labor veterans, scientists and advanced personnel in production, and our country's notables. In accordance with a glorious tradition, the new school year will begin with a solemn review and a Leninist Lesson on the topic "Let's implement the party's plans!" All these questions must find reflection and profound interpretation at the August conferences.

In giving to us the large and critically important tasks that are linked with the carrying out of the reform of the general-educational and vocational school system, the April 1984 Plenum of the CPSU Central Committee has required that decisive steps be taken to eliminate completely the narrowly departmental approach to the job and any manifestations of formalism or bureaucratism in the management of public education, and recommended the improvement of the work style.

Speaking about work style, I would like to direct attention to another question. As is well known, the CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Council of Ministers have deemed it necessary to increase the role of the USSR State Committee for Vocational and Technical Education in carrying out a uniform state policy in the training of skilled workers. Proceeding from this instruction, we must, on the basis of the documents being developed -- the Lists of Occupations and Uniform Requirements With Regard to the Level of Content of Vocational Instruction -- guarantee supervision over the observance of the established procedure for certification and the awarding of a proficiency level to persons who are mastering occupations as workers, regardless of the form of training.

We have ahead of us a large amount of responsible work in implementing the Basic Directions for the Reform of the General Educational and Vocational School System. The workers in the vocational and technical educational system are justifying with distinction the tasks that have been entrusted to them in improving the instruction and indoctrination of worthy young replacements for the working class.

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DEMOGRAPHY

PROCESSING OF DEMOGRAPHIC DATA DISCUSSED

Upcoming Demographic Study Detailed

Moscow VESTNIK STATISTIKI in Russian No 6, Jun 84 pp 34-39

[Article by A. Troshina, chief economist in the USSR Central Statistical Administration Population Census Administration: "Organizational Questions in the 1985 Sample Sociodemographic Population Study"]

[Text] In January 1985 the state statistical organs will for the first time conduct a sample sociodemographic population study. Its purpose is to trace the changes in the makeup of the country's population since the last All-Union Census in 1979 and to provide planning and economic organs with information needed to draw up the plans for economic and social development in the 12th Five-Year Plan and for the longer term.

The study will cover five percent of the population living on the territory of the USSR, with the exception of the Far North and other regions with which communication is difficult in January.

The study will be conducted 2 through 11 January 1985 by means of a poll of the population carried out by specially trained individuals (tellers) recruited from enterprises, establishments and organizations for a period of 17 working days. In addition, other workers will also be recruited for training and carrying out the study. They will be released from their main activity for 22 days to work as instructor-controllers, and for 3.5 months for work as deputy chiefs at rayon (or city) data processing stations (or centers) and state statistics inspectors for matters concerning the population study. It should be noted that personnel recruited for training and carrying out the sociodemographic population study will still receive their average wages for their main work activity (including bonuses from the wages fund and the material incentive fund). In addition, an extra once-only payment will be made.

The USSR Central Statistical Administration and the union republic central statistical administrations have already done some preparatory work: calendar plans for the work have been drawn up, specifying the executors of the appropriate measures in the USSR and union republic central statistical administrations and the ASSR, kray, oblast and city statistical administrations, and the data processing stations (or centers) and inspectorates of state statistics; population

census and study departments have been set up in those statistical administrations where they have not been maintained since the last census; lists of rayons in the Far North and other regions in which the study will not be conducted have been compiled and confirmed; and an all-union registry publication section [Soyuzuchetizdat] has been set up in the All-Union Geographic Society to publish and distribute essential documentation locally, and a list of interconnected computer centers in the USSR Central Statistical Administration system determined for processing the material obtained; and so forth.

The electoral districts for the 4 March 1984 elections to the USSR Supreme Soviet served as the basis for the selection and formation of the sampling aggregate for conducting the sociodemographic population study in 1985.

The study will be conducted on the territory only of those electoral districts included in the sample. It will cover all the permanent population living on the territory of the selected electoral districts, including those living permanently in hospitals, sanatoria, rest homes and similar establishments.

For a complete registration of the population it is necessary to know precisely what households and populated points in a given electoral district the teller should visit and for the necessary documentation to be completed for each residence. Proceeding from the average norms established for work load during the entire period, in order to establish how many tellers and instructor-controllers are needed it is necessary to divide the territory of each electoral district included in the sample into counting districts, from which the instructor districts will be formed. Then these districts will be supported by the appropriate workers to carry out the study directly. All this can be done given the information on the complete listing of households and populated points included in the makeup of the electoral districts, together with information on the size of the population, including persons younger than 18 years.

In this connection the state statistical organs face one of the main parts of preparatory work, namely completing the forms showing the composition of the electoral district in urban settlements and rural localities. The forms are being completed by the chiefs of the rayon data processing stations (or centers) and the city data processing stations (or centers), and the inspectors of state statistics in accordance with USSR Central Statistical Administration instructions, on the basis of decisions made by the ispolkoms of the rayon (or city) soviets of working people's deputies on the formation of electoral districts for elections to the USSR Supreme Soviet, together with DEZ [expansion unknown--ed], housing construction cooperative and housing operation office data, households and so forth, farm logs and lists from the registers of the rural soviets, as adjusted on 1 June 1984, and also schematic plans for rayons (or cities) showing the boundaries of the electoral districts. In accordance with the calendar plan, work on the forms should be completed before 5 July 1984.

Before 20 June 1984 the chiefs of rayon and city data processing stations (or centers) and the state statistical inspectors for rayons and cities should undergo instruction on completion of these forms.

The completeness and reliability of data on the populations in urban settlements and rural localities form the basis of the qualitative and timely completion of forms and constitute an important condition for the successful and well-organized conducting of the study. It is therefore essential to strengthen the work that has continued since the 1979 All-Union Census to check the numbers of households and the names of streets and to insure completeness in the population count. This is also of great importance because no time has been allowed in the calendar plan for making more precise and checking the forms that have been compiled showing the composition of the electoral districts in urban settlements and rural localities.

Before completing the forms the chiefs of the rayon and city data processing stations (or centers) and the inspectors of state statistics should verify the boundary of the electoral districts where the population study is to be conducted. In accordance with the instructions, in urban settlements the form should include all households included in the makeup of the electoral district, and in the rural localities it should include the rural populated points.

As in other population censuses, during the study the count of the urban and rural populations will be done in different documents. Therefore, form No 1-urban "Composition of the Electoral District in Urban Settlements" should be used for urban electoral districts, and form No 2-rural "Composition of the Electoral District in a Rural Locality" should be used for rural districts. Data on both electoral districts must not be included on the same form since the territory of each of them will be divided up into counting sectors.

The composition of some city or settlement soviets includes rural soviets or individual rural populated points. In this case an electoral district may be formed to include both an urban and a rural locality (in the city soviet of working people's deputies ispolkom this can be called a city district). If this kind of mixed electoral district happens to be in the sample, then form No 1-urban is completed for the urban locality and form No 2-rural for the rural locality.

Form No 1-urban includes the following: the name of the urban settlement, the number of the electoral district, the name of the street, lane, square and so forth, and the number of the households. All these indicators are determined by the decision of the rayon (or city) soviet of working people's deputies ispolkom on the formation of electoral districts for elections to the USSR Supreme Soviet. For every household it is necessary to record the number of the apartment and the number of people permanently living there, including those temporarily absent. The local state statistical organs should receive these data from the DEZ, housing construction cooperative, housing operation office and so forth that deals with the household in question.

It should be borne in mind that if in the ispolkom decision an incomplete list of households in a given electoral district or a listing only of the names of the streets without an indication of the houses has been made, or if a territory is named without reference to streets or numbers of households, then when completing form No 1-urban, the chief of the rayon or city data processing station (or center) and the state statistical inspector should write in all

the appropriate data on the basis of the lists of electors and information obtained from the DEZ, housing construction cooperative, housing operation office and so forth.

When the boundaries of the electoral districts are checked in urban settlements, the following situation may be encountered: on the same street as the houses included in the composition of a given electoral district there may be a house under construction, which will be occupied when the study is conducted (from 1 January 1985), but is not indicated in the decision of the corresponding rayon or city ispolkom on that electoral district since it was not scheduled for occupation at the time the elections took place, or because occupation had been delayed at the time of the elections. Because the study is to be conducted 10 months later than the elections and will cover all the permanent population in any given electoral district, it is advisable to include such households on the list for the corresponding street, having first explained in the ispolkom that it will be included in the composition of the given electoral district.

Form No 2-rural includes the following: the name of the rural soviet, the type of populated point and its full name, the number of farms and the number of the permanent population, including those temporarily absent. These data should be obtained from the decision of the rayon soviets of working people's deputies ispolkoms on the elections to the USSR Supreme Soviet, and also the farm books and lists. Only the main populated points are included on the form. Individual structures and the small populated points associated with them are not shown, but the number of farms and the numbers of those living permanently on them should be included on the form for the corresponding indicators of the main populated points.

When completing the forms special attention must be paid to the fact that the nonindependent populated points are not recorded on them. It is absolutely essential to determine whether or not each rural populated point is a main point. If it is not considered a main populated point according to the rural soviet register, then it is necessary to find out which populated point it is included in. In this connection major complication can occur in the Baltic republics where the farmstead [khutor] type of settlement predominates among the rural population and whose main points include numerous farmsteads and hamlets [derevno] dispersed over great distances. And in some cases the names of the small populated points are the same as the names of the main populated points.

If there is complex construction or city-type construction (that is, multistorey apartment houses, streets and so forth) in the villages, it is advisable to include these kinds of populated points on a separate form No 1-urban. From the data on this form the chief of the city or rayon data processing station (or center) and the state statistical inspector will easily form the counting sector. Then it is necessary to collate the data on these kinds of populated points with the corresponding data in the farm register and transfer them from form No 1-urban to form No 2-rural for the electoral district that includes these points. In this way complete summary data will be obtained on the rural electoral district.

When the register of information on households and rural populated points in the electoral districts is complete it is necessary once again to collate the number of households and rural populated points included on the form with the corresponding indicators from the decision of the rayon (or city) soviets of working people's deputies ispolkoms on the formation of the electoral districts for the elections to the USSR Supreme Soviet, the voters' lists and other materials.

The aktiv of the rayon (or city) soviets of working people's deputies ispolkoms can be of great help in the work done by the chiefs of the rayon and city data processing stations (or centers); and likewise the public, which will be recruited for checking and making more precise the lists in the farm books and listings.

Correctly complete forms will show the numerical strength of the urban and rural populations in each electoral district included in the sample, and the rayon as a whole, which is essential for efficient organization of the study during all its subsequent stages.

In addition to this work, the state statistical organs have also to implement a number of important organizational measures provided for in the calendar plan of work: drawing up an organizational plan for conducting the study in the rayons and cities, selecting, confirming and training personnel and so forth.

The efficient fulfillment of his duties by each person conducting the study will do much to promote successful work. Therefore, special documents have been introduced for the timely and correct fulfillment of all work: for tellers, a teller's count book for the urban settlements and rural localities; for the state statistics inspectors for questions involving the population study and for the instructor-controllers, a list of the duties of the deputy chief of the rayon or city data processing station or center and of the inspectors of state statistics for questions involving the population study, and the instructor-controllers. These documents indicate everything that must be done to prepare for and conduct the study and to pass on quality material within the time schedules set for completion of the work. They includes tables that contain data on providing tellers with documentation, and lists of tellers when the preliminary work is being conducted and during the period of the study.

A special section in these documents (using loose-leaf pages) has been set aside for recording remarks and proposals on the organization and conducting of the sample study. These materials will serve as the main source for accountability on the part of the union republic central statistical administrations and the ASSR, kray, oblast and city statistical departments in preparing for and conducting the study.

Before the study (by 28 or 29 December 1984) the tellers should go round to all the premises in their sectors to check the information compiled earlier by the instructor-controller or deputy chief of the rayon or city data processing station (or center) or the inspector for state statistics on questions concerning the population study, as contained in Table 1 of the list of each household and rural populated point, and note in Table 2 each place of residence in

respect of the corresponding household and rural populated point, indicating the number of persons permanently living there. At the same time the tellers should give the population notice of the upcoming study, explain its purpose and tasks, and find out the most convenient time for conducting the poll of those living in any given place of residence.

During the 10 days during which the study is being conducted, the tellers should again visit the premises in their sectors and find out in each place of residence, in accordance with the instructions on the procedure for conducting the 1985 sample sociodemographic population study and for completing the forms, how many families and single people are living in any given place of residence and record this information on the study form blanks.

If at any given place of residence there is a permanent member of the household of working age engaged in a domestic or private subsidiary occupation and not studying, then this is indicated on the questionnaire list in accordance with the instructions for its completion.

On completion of the study, within the time set by the instructor-controller or deputy chief of the rayon or city data processing station (or center) or the inspector of state statistics on questions involving the population study (12 or 13 January 1985) tellers should pass on study material (the study forms along with appendices, sorted into order by numbers for the counting sector and stacked in packages, questionnaire sheets and so forth).

By no later than 15 January 1985 the checked material should be passed by the instructor-controllers and deputy chiefs of rayon or city data processing stations (or centers) or inspectors of state statistics for questions concerning the population study, to the chiefs of the rayon and city data processing stations (or centers) and the inspectors of state statistics in the rayons and cities.

On 25 January 1985, all material, carefully checked, will be passed on from the chiefs of the rayon or city data processing stations (or centers) and the inspectors of state statistics in the corresponding rayons and cities, to the central statistical administrations of the union republics not having oblasts, and to the ASSR, kray, oblast and city statistical departments, which will prepare the material for machine processing.

Throughout the entire period of preparation for and the conducting of the study and the passing on of materials, the organs of state statistics should exercise day-to-day control over this work, keep people currently informed about the course of its preparation and progress, check completed documents, and take urgent steps to insure normal work by all persons conducting the study, and eliminate defects.

Mass explanatory work among the public will help in conducting the sample sociodemographic study at a high level, since when its purpose and tasks are explained, along with the importance of the program and other questions, the public will be able to give study personnel great assistance. It is very important to start this work in good time on the territory of those electoral

districts where the population study is to be conducted. The most varied forms of mass explanatory work may be employed: the press, radio and television, interviews with the public and so forth.

With the cooperation of party and soviet organs, workers in the organs of state statistics should devote all their efforts toward the successful conducting of this major and complex statistical work--the 1985 sample sociodemographic population study.

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Processing Population Statistics

Moscow VESTNIK STATISTIKI in Russian No 6, Jun 84 pp 58-62

[Article by M. Levit, candidate of economic sciences, deputy director of the USSR Central Statistical Administration All-Union State Planning and Technological Institute: "The Comprehensive Approach to Processing of Statistical Data on the Population"]

[Text] The last decade has been characterized by intensive growth in production of the means of Soviet-made computer equipment. The development of automated data banks and control systems of both the concentrated type and of those that are spread across different hierarchies, is opening up new opportunities for data processing using the extensive range of the operating and technical properties of computers, peripherals and facilities for data acquisition, preparation and transmission.

One of the country's most developed computer systems is the USSR Central Statistical Administration network of computer centers, equipped at the all-union, republic and oblast levels with the YeS computer. Work is being done to introduce minicomputers and microprocessors in the rayon element of the organs of state statistics, and this, of course, will make it possible to develop an improved technical basis for the computer network.

As is known, the automated system for state statistics includes a number of functional subsystems, including statistics on industry, capital construction, labor and wages, agriculture, population, trade and so forth.

Sociodemographic information about the population of both the country as a whole and of each individual region is an urgent necessity for administrative, planning and a number of other organs, administrations and organizations. Questions concerning the numerical strength, structure and dynamics of the population in the past, present and, particularly, the future require constant study. In our view, questions concerning the development of this branch of statistics should be regarded in their interrelationship with questions of improving population data processing.

In this article we shall deal with certain directions in the improvement of processing for statistical data within the framework of the functional subsystem

"Population Statistics" whose realization will make it possible to study the population more completely and comprehensively.

During 1970 and 1979 major complexes for the electronic processing of information (KEOI), designated "All-Union Population Census," were developed for the automated system for state statistics "Population Statistics" subsystem. Since 1981 complexes designated "Natural Population Movement" and "Population Migration" have been in operation. In addition, an automated system for operating an all-union classifier--the system of notations for administrative-territorial indexing (SOATO)--is functioning; since this is not an integral part of any functional subsystem it serves as a link element for all automated subsystems, included those mentioned above. Here, each complex of the "Population Statistics" subsystem has ripple-through features in its meaningful part. Let us briefly consider these complexes.

All-Union Population Census.

As the result of processing census information on technical mediums (magnetic tape and discs) an aggregate of primary data is formed about the population of each territory along with data on population structure in each territory, listed in statistically grouped tables.

Natural Population Movement.

The aggregate of data on birth rate and mortality rate and recordings of marriages and divorces.

Population Migration.

The aggregate of data on where people are settled within the country, associated with changes in place of residence.

When studying data on natural movement and population migration information is collected (as in a census) on each individual.

Analysis of the census forms and documents recording natural population movement (official documents on births, deaths, marriages and divorces) and population migration (records of those arriving and those leaving), indicates that the following ripple-through features are present in these documents: sex, age, marital status, education, nationality and source of income. This kind of makeup of features makes it possible to gain a sufficiently adequate idea of the main demographic characteristics.

Unfortunately, the growing idea of creating a "population register" following a census and based on the census, that would be constantly brought up to date by recording natural movement and population migration cannot be realized because of a number of problems of an organizational and technical nature.

At the same time it is quite possible to create on the basis of these three complexes a "register of territories" which would be the aggregate of information on the population in each specific administrative-territorial unit.

As we analyze variants for the formation of a register of territories, let us consider the individual aspects that determine the path to its creation.

Thus, data storage may be done in two ways:

--for each individual (when output data are formed at some arbitrary periodicity or on request);

--in the form of tables (when appropriate operations are done to prepare the output data).

In the former case it is possible to obtain a broader spectrum of output data but it requires considerable storage on magnetic mediums, and a complex control system is needed for the data base, including programs for handling different kinds of tabular matrices; and there are also difficulties in manipulation (adding and subtracting) of these matrices.

In the latter case the volume of data contained in the tables does not require large amounts of storage and all matrix operation are quite simple. Since the number of features characterizing a population is small and provision can be made in advance to obtain appropriate storage for data on all permissible (logic) correlation functions in the tables, the volume of output data is not decisive.

At the same time it must be taken into account that if the need will arise to use data from a population census in order to calculate indicators dynamically or to construct dynamic series for movement (change) in the numerical strength and structure of the population, it is necessary to provide storage for initial data when they are inputted for each individual, and this must be done in parallel with the introduction of a register of territories. In the event that a change may occur in the administrative boundaries of specific territorial units, it is also advisable to store data on each individual, since when data are stored in tabular form, their extension to a newly formed territory will be associated with definite technical difficulties and involve a quite complicated mathematical apparatus.

Thus, the multilevel nature of the possible use of information on the population leads to a need for additional research in order to find an optimal organization for data files.

A second aspect that should be considered when creating a register of territories (each rayon, city, oblast and republic and the USSR as a whole, distinguishing between the urban and rural populations on each territory) is the technology for organizing work from the standpoints of operational considerations and labor-intensiveness.

Operational considerations envisage the need for timely acquisition of a minimum amount of data on the population within an accounting period, for use in statistical accounts and calculations.

Labor-intensiveness in the work depends largely on whether or not there is duplication when recording population migration. The crux of the matter is that the multimillion-strong flow of migrants is recorded in documents twice, at the point of departure, in the notifications of former population, and at the point of arrival, in the notifications of arriving population. In both cases the notifications include the point of departure and the point of arrival, and thus, considerable duplication of information is observed in the records.

It is thought that record keeping with these notifications for those arriving is reliable. If record keeping for notifications of population departures is abandoned it will be possible to eliminate laborious manual work and at the same time reduce the flow of documents. Then, however, in order to obtain information on population departures for each specific territory, the appropriate information will be required from the territory to which the population moved. This task can be solved in two ways: either send the notification of arrival to the point of departure (after it has been processed at the point of arrival), or centralize all processing of notifications of arrivals and let a computer handle the process of disseminating data on points of departure.

The second variant is simpler but requires centralization for the formation and maintenance of registers of territories, even though the functional purpose of the register (taking into account the current acquisition of information) is to build a dispersed system for forming and actualizing it using communications channels and other automated facilities for data exchange.

Let us consider two directions in a third very important aspect of the creation of a register of territories, namely the encoding of the administrative-territorial units. The first direction is application of the all-union SOATO classifier. Taking into account the fact that this classifier contains more than 50,000 positions, of which about 13,000 would be sufficient to set up a register of territories (designating territories down to rayon level and distinguishing between urban and rural localities), it is possible to extract a concise "List of Territories" from SOATO (as has already been done during the census). Automatic handling of this "List" should be done in parallel by SOATO: here, any change in it should result in a change in the content of the registers for those territories affected.

The second direction is direct encoding of the names of territories in the primary documents. If we take the oblast as the minimum unit for the register, then encoding the names of the territories can be done manually. If the register of territories is built up from the rayon level, which is more promising from the standpoint of its use, then encoding the multidigit sign for a territory becomes more complicated. Because of this it is advisable to study the question of recording on the technical medium not a code but the name of the territory itself (in letter transcription) with subsequent machine transfer into a digital code. A study of which variant is optimal under conditions of fully centralized or decentralized handling of the register would be of interest.

When resolving questions of encoding the names of territories it should be remembered that one of the most promising directions in improving data processing is the development of machine-readable primary documents. At present the

completion and reading of alphabetical information on standardized documents still present certain difficulties, but completion and reading of standardized figures can be done technically. With respect to documents with graphic marks, the experience of two all-union censuses has shown the viability and high effectiveness of combining the primary document with a technical medium.

If we consider the creation of a register of territories as a problem in creating a data base for the "Population Statistics" functional subsystem, then the switch to the use of standardized machine-readable primary documents (even if data are recorded in the form of graphic marks) is a realistic way of improving processing while obtaining considerable savings through reducing the labor-intensiveness of large-scale manual operations.

At the rayon (or oblast) level it is quite possible to use any device for collecting information and recording data on minicassettes, flexible discs or other mediums. The collection device can be multistation terminals in a computer complex based on microprocessors or minicomputers designed for use as the main technical means for rayon-level computer systems in the state statistical organs.

A dispersed system of computer centers, built on the radial-annular principle, could be considered as one variant for the system of data acquisition, processing, exchange and storage. Rayon (or city) data processing centers equipped with minicomputers and microprocessors could be located at the tips of the radius while the core of the oblast and republic annular systems would be major computer centers (the collective-use computer centers). The availability of such a system will make it possible to sharply raise the level of automation in data processing, eliminate duplication in processing operations and so forth, that is, insure the functioning of a register of territories in efficient interaction with all the functional subsystems of the automated system for state statistics. The topology of this system, with minimization of the number of channels using the Prim algorithm has been considered in the work of the USSR Central Statistical Administration Scientific Research Institute (M. Rakhmanov, I. Yeremeyeva and others). The problems of synthesizing the structure and the reliability of the communications networks using the method of vector optimization have been worked on at the Kazakh Branch of the USSR Central Statistical Administration All-Union State Planning and Technological Institute (work by S. Karlinskiy and others).

Several variants can be suggested for creating a register of territories. The simplest is the centralized processing and handling of it in the USSR Central Statistical Administration Main Computer Center with subsequent information services for the administrative organs on territories at all levels. Data from the 1979 All-Union Census amended for changes in the numerical strength and composition of the population in the intervening period could be used as its basis. Here, taking into account the availability of powerful computers, it is advisable to handle the data base in parallel in two directions: in the form of primary data on the population census, taking into account natural population movement and population migration, and in the form of summary tables. This kind of sequence makes it possible at any time to recover needed data, distinguish or select part of a general file and so forth. In setting up the

register it is possible to limit the operation only to the tabular information inputted at the moment of its creation using data from current statistics. However, in that event the opportunity for obtaining comparison data on changes in the numerical strength and composition of the population in the period since the last census will be lost.

Automated handling of the register at each territorial level (rayon, oblast, republic, all-union) is also possible, with the organization of the primary data base at a low level (rayon) and by insuring information services by hierarchies and handling the registers only in tabular form at the higher levels. Although this kind of sequence is quite acceptable, before creation of the closed circuit for the automated communications system to receive data on interrayon migration it is necessary to look at the many millions of notifications on departures.

In addition, various combinations are possible, connected with the creation of registers in individual oblasts and republics or temporary abandonment of studies on interrayon migration and so forth.

The question of optimizing the variant used to create a register of territories, like improving data processing for population statistics and statistics in general, is inseparably linked with improvements in the technical base used to process statistical information within the framework of the automated system for state statistics.

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DEMOGRAPHY

BOOKS ON DEMOGRAPHY REVIEWED

Succession Problem Discussed

Moscow NOVYY MIR in Russian No 3, Mar 84 pp 265-266

[Article by Doctor of Economic Sciences A. Vishnevskiy, reviewing book by V. I. Perevedentsev: "I Pay My Debts, I Make Loans. Topical Problems of Demography," Moscow, "Sovetskaya Rossiya," 1983, 143 pages]

[Text] The title of the book reminds the reader of the well-known parable about the family: "I pay debts--I feed my parents, I lend--I raise my own children, who will become my support in old age." The eternal thread of mutual concern connects the generations and serves as a token of the continuity of mankind. It was always so. And now? Our time, sated with changes, ever more frequently constrains us to ponder the question: Haven't we become stingier with regard to loans? No, no one reproaches us with the fact that we give our children little. The point is a different one: it relates to the actual number of children. Frankly, they are becoming continually fewer in modern families, especially in several of the republics of our country. Because the majority of the USSR's population lives in these republics, the situation, as the author writes, has, on the whole, "come to the point where narrowed reproduction is beginning."

V. Perevedentsev, a scholar and publicist, has drawn attention to the important problem of the succession of generations previously. Today we economize on loans and tomorrow no one will repay the debt to us, warns the author and he shows how the national economy is now already beginning to experience the consequences of demographic changes. The important thing here is the deceleration in the growth of labor resources and the aging of the population. An insufficiency of working hands has long been unknown to our economy. But in the 1970's there was more and more talk of a deficit of labor resources, usually explained by the special features of the demographic situation. Gradually, however, it was understood that the problem was not so much demographic as economic and it had to be resolved, first of all, by an increase in productive labor. An especially noticeable deficit began to be experienced in the second half of the 1970's when the increase in labor resources was by no means small. According to the data presented in the book, the age group from 20 to 60 years was replenished in this period by 13.8 million people, while in the preceding 5 years, by only

8.5 million. But it is still not possible to discard calculations and demographic tendencies--during the present five-year plan, the growth of the population working in the national economy experienced a sharp decrease, while in the 1990's it will decrease even further than in the 1980's.

Due to the decrease in the birth rate, the population, including its able-bodied section, is becoming older. Thus, among people in the 20-60 year age group, the proportion of the older segment--those from 40 to 60--increased from 32 to 43 percent from 1939 to 1975. In other words, the inflow of youth into production is decelerating, as is the renewal of its labor force; the mobility of labor resources is being reduced in terms of profession, qualification and territory, which, in turn, cannot fail to tell on labor productivity. It is not only the purely economic indicators that are dependent upon the decline in the birth rate, but it affects the most varied areas of human life: it influences social shifts, the organization of family life, the education of children and many other things. It is all the more important to understand the reasons for this phenomenon in order to escape the accumulation of its undesirable consequences as far as possible.

It is shown in V. Perevedentsev's book that the roots of the decline in the birth rate are indissolubly connected with important and, on the whole, progressive changes in the life of Soviet society--with changes in the status of women, an increase in the proportion of urban population, marked growth in the education and mobility of people and deeply positive changes in the stratum of family life.

But, as often happens, the most positive changes have their reverse side: the resolution of some problems engenders others which society must solve at a new stage of development. The reduced number of children in families is one such problem. One may judge its scale by the figures quoted in the book: the birth rate at the end of the 1930's among 1,000 women surviving to 50 years old could have been, on the average, 4,350 children; at the end of the 1950's, 2,810; at the end of the 1970's, 2,284 children. There are many reasons for the decline in the birth rate. Among the most important, the author mentions the decline in mortality, especially infant mortality; the change in the economic function of children and the growth of expenses for their education; a reorientation in the system of values ("...the third--and in the city, often the second--child 'displaces' the values of another birth: professional interests, possibilities for relaxation, etc."); the high employment of women in public production and their double obligation--at work and at home; the weakening of family stability.

V. Perevedentsev considers that "the epicenter of the demographic problem is the young family." Many profound processes which flow through the economic and social areas are reflected here with particular strength and emerge on the surface. The pages devoted to the origin and life of the young family belong, in my view, to the most successful in the book. They naturally bring up for analysis possible measures to help the family within the framework of the demographic policy conducted by the Soviet government and the effectiveness of this policy. From the standpoint of generation

substitution, it would be necessary, the author writes, at least for 60 out of every 100 families to have 3 children and for 40 to have 2 each. If measures to help the family bring us closer to such a statistical distribution, this will be the best index of their effectiveness.

The theme of the birth rate (I hope that such an expression is permissible) is an important one, but it is not the only one in the book. There are also analyses of migration, mortality, the complexities of implanting of former peasants in cities. V. Perevedentsev writes about all this with great knowledge of the matter, simply and, very importantly, with sincere interest. That is why I think that the path of his book to the reader will be a short one.

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Population Reproduction Differences Considered

Moscow EKONOMICHESKIYE NAUKI in Russian No 3, Mar 84 pp 112-114

[Article by Professor and Doctor of Economic Sciences P. Zvidrin'sh, reviewing the book "Special Features of Demographic Development in the USSR" edited by R. S. Rotova, Moscow, Finance & Statistics, 1982, 230 pages]

[Text] Under conditions of mature socialism, growing attention is being drawn to questions of economic and demographic connections, regularity and tendencies of demographic development on the part of scholars in various specialties and practical workers. Without a resolution of these questions it is not possible to put into practice rapidly the goal set by the CPSU on the working out and implementation of an effective demographic policy. It is also necessary to take into account that a knowledge of the processes of population development is becoming increasingly more necessary for the resolution of a wide range of social and economic problems in our country and its separate republics and regions. These facts determine a significant interest in the book under review and, moreover, this is an interest outside the framework of demography itself.

The authors of the collective monograph, comprising an introduction and three chapters, have precisely defined from the very beginning the aim of their research: to consider the differences in population reproduction by republic and region on the basis of an analysis of their socioeconomic development as a whole. Together with their inclusion of extensive, concrete factual material, the authors trace the historical development of the contemporary demographic situation in our country and its separate regions, and also analyze global tendencies of demographic development in perspective.

The first chapter presents detailed research on the basic causes of irregularity at the beginning of changes in the then traditional type of population reproduction according to regions of Russia in the pre-revolutionary period. The authors hold to a conception of demographic transition.¹ There may be a desire here to object to the authors'

assertion that the first stage in the transition--decline in mortality--began in Russia in the middle of the 19th century (cf. p 31). It is known that even in the European part of Russia as a whole (50 guberniyas), the mortality coefficient during 1881-1885 (36.4 percent) was practically the same as during 1861-1865 (36.5 percent).² According to the tables of mortality by L. Besser and K. Ballod, the number of those surviving to 30 years of age during 1871-1880 was lower than during 1851-1860. Practically the same situation was maintained in the 1880's.³ During this period, only the survival rate of the elderly had a tendency to a certain growth. A certain essential lowering of mortality in Russia as a whole only began at the end, not in the middle, of the 19th century.

It is indicated in the monograph that the lowering of mortality and birth rate that began before the revolution was much more clearly displayed after it. The authors correctly stress that in the 1920's and 1930's, the rapid socioeconomic development of the country caused increased migration and a growth of urban population, as well as the process of demographic transition to the present type of population reproduction. The highest rates of economic and cultural growth were noted in the earlier backward outlying national regions, especially in the republics of Central Asia, Kazakhstan and Transcaucasia. But, as before, the demographic situation in the republics of the USSR was not homogeneous. The authors show, on the basis of concrete material, that the relative indices of real population growth in the union republics, in the narrowest sense, correlated with the proportion of urban population and the employment of women.

Examining the development of the country's population after the Great Patriotic War, the authors note the retention of significant differentiation of the republics' economic, social and cultural development, which also affected the demographic situation. The important conclusion is drawn that at the beginning of the 1960's, the Baltic republics (especially Estonia and Latvia) and Ukraine had completed the second stage of demographic transition. The RSFSR, however, had only approached its completion. Georgia, Belorussia and Moldavia were in the middle of the second stage and Kazakhstan had just entered it. The beginning stage of demographic transition was characteristic of the other republics at that time; various mortality rates were noted together with relatively stable (Armenia) or even growing birth rates (the other union republics) (cf. p 56).

In principle, we share the authors' viewpoint. But one would have wished to find in the book analyzed information on the differentiation of the demographic situation in the individual republics, especially the RSFSR and Ukraine. It should be mentioned that in the book under review the demographic indices characteristic of the stages of demographic transition are not described clearly and correctly enough. Thus, for example, on page 26 it is stated that the general coefficients of mortality in the second stage are reduced by up to 6-7 percent, while the gross and net coefficients of population reproduction are equalized when the absolute value reaches 1.2-1.3. In actuality, at the beginning of the 1960's, the mortality coefficient in Latvia and Estonia was at a level of 10 percent (cf. pp 55, 95), while the coefficients of reproduction referred to were less than the

figure and, in the postwar years, never exceeded a value of 1.0-1.05 (cf. pp 90-91).

Section 4 of the book's first chapter is especially worthy of mention. The authors analyze the changing tendencies in the fund and structure of women's time outside of work for the period from the 1920's to the 1960's. Until now such a comparative analysis in connection with birth rate tendencies has been conducted extremely rarely. Unfortunately, this fragment is not completely successfully delineated in the overall structure of the monograph. Essentially, it utilizes only data on the urban population of the RSFSR, although available contemporary information on other republics, the Latvian SSR, for example, could have been drawn on for the analysis.⁴

In the second chapter of the work under review, contemporary tendencies of demographic development are examined in a regional aspect. The research was accomplished within the framework of a scientific direction of population economy, newly developed in our country, based on exposure of the regularity of the interconnections between economic and demographic processes.

The authors have devoted a great deal of attention to exposing the levels of socioeconomic development in the republics. On the basis of a corresponding analysis, the conclusion is drawn in the book that a steady rapprochement of the levels of socioeconomic development in the republics continued from 1960 to 1980 (cf. p 87). It is true that it is possible to regret the fact that in a number of cases the authors did not utilize more precise indices than those employed by them. For example, in speaking of problems of material well-being, it would be well to proceed from the volume of national revenue and retail commodity circulation to the conventional consumer unit. The point is that average mental characteristics are susceptible to the influence of the age-sex structure of the population and their quantitative significance, in large part, actually does not reflect the real correlations of living standard in a region and the age differences of the population.

One paragraph devoted to the characteristics of the contemporary demographic situation in the USSR contains valuable material; the authors made wide use here of special indices of population reproduction. Regional analysis of the special features of demographic development yielded the possibility of isolating three groups (types) of republics in accordance with their stages of demographic transition. The republics of Central Asia belong to the first type. The second type is subdivided into two groups, depending upon the level of completion of the second stage of demographic transition. The first group includes Armenia, Azerbaijan and Kazakhstan; the second group, Lithuania, Georgia and Moldavia. All the other republics belong to the third type. Such a grouping of union republics does not, on the whole, provoke objections. But the inclusion of the Lithuanian SSR in the group of republics which have just completed the second stage of demographic transition (cf. p 103) cannot be recognized as correct. This contradicts the latest data and, to a certain extent, also the information presented by the authors of the book themselves (cf. p 101).

At the 26th CPSU Congress, it was stressed that account must be taken of the special features of the combined work of women and mothers in production and at home in various republics and regions.⁵ A great deal of attention is devoted in the monograph to characteristics of the educational and professional level of working women, given in regional cross-section. Special paragraphs are devoted to the modeling of child-bearing and characteristics of changing tendencies in the health of the population.

An important goal of demographic science is the establishment of interconnections between socioeconomic and demographic processes. In the book under review, an attempt is made to analyze, in a regional aspect, the influence of various socioeconomic factors on the evolution of the birth rate. The authors utilize a regression analysis involving many factors for this. The method is rarely used in the USSR for demographic research. In my view, the results obtained permitted confirmation of the chart that clarifies the definite lowering of the birth rate in our country on the basis of the numerical data. The authors correctly stress that it is connected with scientific and technical progress in production, which requires a qualitative improvement in the composition of labor resources by means of broadening the participation of women in public production (cf. p 182). The results obtained by the authors convince one of the expediency of a wider application of regression analysis in demographic research.

The third and concluding chapter of the monograph is devoted to revealing the long-range tendencies of population reproduction in perspective, as well to problems in working out the Complex Long-Range Program for the Development of the Population of the USSR (KDPRN). Brief results are presented here of the history of demographic prognosis and an evaluation is given of the methods and some results of estimates on future figures for the population in the USSR.

It is noted in the monograph that the existing practice for predicting the population of the country still do not take socioeconomic tendencies into adequate consideration. In this regard, the authors themselves have no pretensions to a "precise quantitative calculation of indices of the processes of population reproduction, of general figures and of the population composition of the republics," while they propose "to give only an evaluation of their general tendencies" (p 184). Nonetheless, such an approach has permitted the obtaining of orientational characteristics of population growth rate changes for the next decades and to bring out approximate lengths of time for the ensuing relative stabilization of its numbers, as well as orientational parameters of changes in the age composition of the population.

On the basis of an analysis of formative tendencies, the authors draw the conclusion that the stabilization of population numbers in our country is becoming continually more real, as about 80 percent of the population is characterized by simple reproduction typical for the stabilization stage (cf. p 224). Foreseeing a transition to a qualitatively new type of population reproduction in the republics of Central Asia and in Azerbaijan, the authors, in essence, do not specify a time length for the completion of

such a transition. It is impossible not to agree with the thought presented in the monograph regarding the great significance of active social intervention for the prospective establishment of a desirable type of reproduction.

The book examines, finally, the problems of working out the Complex Long-Range Program for the Development of the Population of the USSR. The first mention of the necessity for the KDPRN was made in our literature only at the end of the 1970's. Although the principles of constructing economic programs were examined earlier in the methodological materials of the Gosplan USSR, the working out of socioeconomic programs in which the social element plays a significant role is just beginning.

The book under review examines precisely the content and structure of the KDPRN for the country as a whole and for a number of basic blocks individually. It is true that the situation stated is only a hypothetical outline and requires further development, but such a situation is warranted by the present beginning stage of work on the program. Moreover, in our view, special significance should be devoted to working out the system of goals of KDPRN, as well as to its connections with other socioeconomic programs in the USSR. Unfortunately, these connections are not given the necessary attention either in the work under review or in other publications. One would wish to hope that this deficiency will be eliminated in the course of fulfilling the plan for scientific research work in the institutions of higher education in the USSR in the area of population according to the scientific problem, "The development and settlement of the population of the USSR in long-range perspective" from 1982 to 1985. The leading executor here is the Center for the Study of Population Problems at Moscow State University, while the co-executors are specialists from many institutions of higher education in various regions of the country.

Aside from those mentioned earlier, there are other inaccuracies in the work under review. It is particularly necessary to say that the Soviet family is very poorly characterized. The authors should have devoted more attention to its special features and the development of population reproduction in various regions of the country; this would have materially enriched the research in many respects. Speaking of omissions of a more particular nature, we should note the incorrectness of the assertion that in the Baltic republics, the level of reproduction "is half of the level at which simple reproduction proceeds" (p 90). On the same page, the following position is also mistaken: "The lack of negative growth here is explained only by the unfavorable special features of the age structure." Obviously, here, as on page 44 (0/00 should have been written on the table, not %) and on page 45, as well as in several other places, typographical errors were committed. There were several numerical errors in the book. Thus, the fact does not correspond to reality that before the war "in the Baltic republics, real growth was 10 times lower as compared with the republics of Central Asia" (p 44) and that "in the Latvian SSR, Russians comprise more than 40 percent of the population" (p 91). We should also note the unwarranted identification of the concepts of "birth rate" and "fertility" (cf. p 90 and elsewhere).

Despite the shortcomings noted, the monograph as a whole makes a favorable impression. It is full of concrete material necessary for scientific teaching workers, it has been prepared on a good theoretical and methodological level and undoubtedly deserves to be recommended.

FOOTNOTES

1. This theoretical construction may be examined as an attempt to present the general evolution of demographic processes in an aspect of a number of successive steps, characterized by definite correspondences of intensity of mortality and birth rate. One should make the reservation that this conception itself and the details of its determination are open to discussion.
2. Cf. Rashin, A. G., "The Population of Russia for 100 Years," Moscow, 1956, pp 187-188.
3. Cf. Besser, L. and K. Ballod, "Mortality, Age Composition and Longevity of the Orthodox Population of Both Sexes in Russia, 1851-1890," St. Petersburg, 1897, p 55.
4. Cf. "Time Balance of the Population of the Latvian SSR," Riga, 1976.
5. Cf. Materials of the 26th CPSU Congress, Moscow, 1981, p 54.

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